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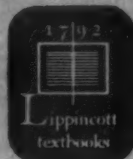


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# The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIX, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1958

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## As the Editor Sees It

Education is perhaps more susceptible than most professions and institutions to periodic shifts in direction, emphasis and purpose. Law, the church, medicine or journalism do change, of course, but more slowly and usually in a fairly constant direction. Education, on the other hand, seems to shift its position like a weathercock, though actually, being a much truer reflection of the popular mind than other institutions, it is really following the spiral-like motion that is characteristic of our social thinking. The public tends to pursue an attractive idea or policy beyond its optimum value, whereupon reaction sets in and causes, not a return to the original position, but to a point somewhere near and above it, when a new cycle begins.

That education is peculiarly responsive to these cyclical movements is naturally due to the great increase in public interest in it during the past fifty years. The unlettered but self-made man no longer has the status he once did, as an object lesson in the superiority of industry and determination over schooling. The public today realizes that native qualities cannot replace education, but rather give power and direction to it. Today we are unanimously convinced that education is highly essential, both for the individual and for society. The problem has been — what kind of education?

A quarter-century ago there began the great trend toward general education for every child, growing out of the recognition that most children were being given too little that would be useful to them, causing them to drop out before they had received the full benefits of an organized education. All the emphasis in educational thinking then fell upon new techniques, concepts, and programs that would attract and hold the "slow learner." Core courses, "general" or "applied" courses in various subject areas, voca-

tional training, courses in "social living" under many names, mass testing and guidance techniques, mass promotion and many other ideas became common practice, all pointing toward the ultimate goal of unlimited educational opportunity for every individual. Nor was the retarded child forgotten. At least some states, such as New Jersey, provided elaborate programs of small special classes for the retarded, at a cost per pupil far in excess of that expended on the regular classes.

Now the inevitable reaction has begun to set in. Even before the advent of Sputnik, there was a growing ground-swell of criticism that the schools had geared themselves to the level of mediocrity and paper-doll cutting, and that the children of intellectual promise were being either neglected or at least unchallenged. Educators were already noting the weather signs, and considering the direction of the next tack. Now the dramatic events of the last six months have clearly indicated that, at least, the new emphasis is to be the stress on developing talent in science and mathematics. Almost certainly, and most desirably so, will be a general program of intellectual discipline for superior pupils in all fields. If all this is to be done without curtailing the existing programs for average and slow pupils, it will inevitably be expensive, as specialization must be. For this, if for no other reason, educators must be alert to prevent hasty and ill-considered plans. They must withstand pressure to force more science courses on pupils who can never absorb them; and they must hold strongly to the determination that we need to cultivate more deeply the talents of *all* our potential leaders, not merely those with an aptitude for science. In the years to come we may need great philosophers and great humanists even more than great scientists.



# The Great Debates — A Centenary

WILLIAM WRIGG

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This year the people of Illinois will reenact one of the most dramatic chapters in American history. In every part of the state, elaborate preparations are being made for the centennial celebration of the Lincoln-Douglas debates. President Eisenhower himself has been invited to participate in the coming ceremonies, which will consist of speaking programs, parades, pageants and a multitude of other events. Most exciting of all are the plans for staging mock debates in the seven cities where the original ones took place. Once again the words of Lincoln and Douglas will resound throughout the Illinois countryside in honor of the famous debates that initially started Lincoln on the road to the White House.

The centennial of the Great Debates takes on added significance at a time when less than fifty per cent of the nation's qualified voters are expected to cast their ballots in the coming November elections. Contemporary politicians, seeking to recover the lost art of arousing voter interest in off-year Congressional elections, might well turn for inspiration to the Lincoln-Douglas senatorial campaign of 1858.

As the Congressional elections of that year approached, influential Eastern Republicans led by Horace Greeley implored party leaders in Illinois not to match Lincoln, "a prairie bumpkin," against Stephen A. Douglas, the "Little Giant" of the United States Senate. Douglas had skillfully represented Illinois in the Senate for twelve years. By the middle of his second term of office, he had attained a national prominence comparable to Webster or Calhoun at the height of their careers. Popular sovereignty, the concept of allowing settlers in a territory to

decide for themselves the issue of slavery, had gained for Douglas tremendous prestige throughout the nation. All of his supporters—and many who were not—had little doubt that he would be the next President. As they saw it, the coming senatorial contest was just a "warm up" for the big race in 1860.

Despite outside interference and the apparent superiority of the Democratic candidate, Lincoln's state-wide popularity was such that he was able to secure his party's nomination at the Springfield convention of June 16, 1858. The convention's choice delighted most of the delegates in attendance. Not only had "Honest Abe" Lincoln been nominated, but Republican wiseacres predicted that President Buchanan's denunciation of Douglas, for blocking a pro-slavery constitution for Kansas, would keep enough Buchanan Democrats from the polls in November to make Lincoln the junior senator from Illinois.

As Lincoln mounted the platform of the State House in Springfield, to deliver his acceptance speech before the nominating convention, he realized the coming election was to be a crucial one for his party and for himself personally. It must therefore be launched with a hard-hitting statement of principle: "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved—I do not expect the house to fall—but I do expect it will cease to be divided."

When the speech had ended, the old State House quivered with tumultuous applause. In self-congratulatory frenzy, delegates slapped each other on the back for having selected such a candidate. Surely here was a

man who would meet the Little Giant on his own ground and give no quarter in the ensuing battle.

Learning of Lincoln's nomination and powerful acceptance speech, Douglas became alarmed over the buoyant complacency found all about him. While it was true that his break with Buchanan had not produced the adverse effects first anticipated, still Lincoln must not be underestimated. It almost seemed that Lincoln's ill-fitting clothes and ludicrous appearance were part of a plot to disarm his political foes. During the two years they had served together in the Illinois Legislature, Douglas had observed Lincoln too closely ever to regard him as a backwoods buffoon. If the former rail splitter were to be defeated in November, it would take four months of hard campaigning to do it.

Douglas immediately went on the offensive in his opening speech of the campaign. Before an audience of 25,000, that had gathered in Chicago on a humid July 9th, he stigmatized Lincoln's "House Divided" speech as a "tyrannous attempt to force conformity of institutions on all sections of the country." As Douglas railed on against the divisive philosophy of the Republicans a tall gaunt figure hovered on the edge of the crowd, busily taking notes of everything said.

The next evening, Lincoln put his copious notes to work in answering Douglas. The high-pitched Kentucky twang of his voice was in sharp contrast to Douglas's resonant delivery. Even before concluding his speech, Lincoln realized his first rebuttal of the campaign had fallen short of its mark. Nevertheless, he was determined as ever. He would stick to Douglas like a burr, following him from town to town, pitting the common sense logic of the frontier against the polished eloquence of his gifted opponent.

Douglas spoke in Bloomington on July 16th, and Lincoln was on hand to answer him the following evening. When Douglas made a key address in Springfield a few days later, Lincoln came into town on the very same train. Such unorthodox tactics incurred

the wrath of the Democratic press, which charged that only by hanging onto the coat tails of Douglas could Lincoln attract a sizeable audience. In complete defiance of these attacks, Lincoln made public a message he had sent to Douglas a few days previous: "Will it be agreeable with you to divide speaking time and address the same audiences?"

The immediate reaction among Democrats was to ridicule the temerity of this gangling, uncouth politician to challenge the ablest debater in the country. One newspaper predicted: "Lincoln will get enough debate and discomfiture to last him the rest of his life." Even some of Lincoln's supporters shook their heads at the news. Maybe Abe had been campaigning too hard and too long in the hot Illinois sun.

Douglas, however, perceived the invitation to debate as a masterful stroke in which Lincoln had nothing to lose and everything to gain; for the debates might give Lincoln an importance he would otherwise never attain. It was with great reluctance that the Little Giant accepted, but he had no alternative.

In accepting the challenge, Douglas proposed a debate schedule to which Lincoln readily agreed. There were to be seven debates, one in each Illinois Congressional District not already canvassed. Their exact time and location would be: Ottawa (21 Aug.), Freeport (27 Aug.), Jonesboro (15 Sept.), Charleston (18 Sept.), Galesburg (7 Oct.), Quincy (13 Oct.) and Alton (15 Oct.).

Each town witnessed a similar scene on the day of its scheduled debate. Thousands of people streamed in from all over the state. Some came by special train, others by coach and carriage, and still others by buckboard and buggy. Through the town stomped welcoming bands with booming drum and squealing fife. Flags fluttered from balconies and housetops. Gay bunting and streamers unfurled from shop and store windows. Everyone was dressed in his Sunday best and caught up in a holiday spirit.

As the hour of debate drew near, crowds

became so tightly packed around the speakers' platform that it sometimes took up to half an hour of rough and tumble to clear a path for the debaters. Once on the platform, the striking dissimilarity between the two candidates immediately captured the audience's attention. There was Douglas—impeccably dressed, short, thickset, with a large round head, heavy hair and a fierce bulldog look. A few feet away stood Lincoln—tall, lanky, rather shabbily clad in a store-bought alpaca coat and a plain black stove-pipe hat. Never had there been such a contrast.

Of all the debates, the second, at Freeport, was by far the most significant; for here Lincoln posed a question to Douglas that was to influence greatly the future destinies of both men. How, asked Lincoln, did the senator reconcile his popular sovereignty concept with the recent Dred Scott decision of the Supreme Court, which defined slaves as property not legally excludable from any state or territory? Douglas had already met this question on the floor of the Senate, and some of Lincoln's advisers were against using it at Freeport. Not only had Douglas talked his way out of it on previous occasions, they argued, but it was just the kind of situation he might skillfully manipulate to his own advantage.

Lincoln tenaciously disagreed. He was as adamant about asking this question at Freeport as he had been in keeping the "house divided" phrase in his nomination speech or challenging Douglas to debate in the first place. The time was ripe, he insisted, to confront Douglas with this momentous question once and for all. "Besides," he added, "I'm after larger game than just this election." The "big race" in 1860 had also caught the eye of Mr. Lincoln.

A fine August drizzle was drifting across the Freeport public square while a throng of 15,000 heard Lincoln phrase his paramount question. When it came time for the Little Giant to answer, he calmly replied that it seemed "moral treason" for the Supreme Court to hold that a state or territory could

not exclude slavery. "Despite the Dred Scott decision . . . slavery could not exist a day or an hour unless it was protected by local police regulations. No matter what the court said on the abstract question, the right of the people to make a territory free or slave was perfect and complete."

It was a glib reply, with far reaching effects; for by now the entire nation was appraising the debates. As news reports of Douglas's Freeport "Doctrine" spread across the country, their reception ranged from widespread dissatisfaction in the North to intense hostility in the South.

During a whistle stop speech, delivered on his way to the Jonesboro debate, Lincoln characterized Douglas's Freeport answer in the famous words: "You can fool all of the people some of the time, and some of the people all of the time, but you cannot fool all of the people all of the time." As it stands, this quotation is not quite fair to Douglas, but it would come very close to the truth if the word "please" were substituted for "fool." In taking a position he thought would satisfy both North and South, Douglas had failed to please either.

With the exception of Galesburg, the debates following Freeport were anti-climactic. At Galesburg, Lincoln maneuvered Douglas into a seemingly indifferent position on the moral issue of slavery; then he delivered a telling blow: "I don't think Judge Douglas and whoever, like him, teaches that the Negro has no share, humble though it may be, in the Declaration of Independence, is going back to the era of our liberty and independence; . . . rather he is blowing out the moral lights around us."

In the two remaining debates—at Quincy (13 Oct.) and Alton (15 Oct.)—much old straw was rethreshed, yielding little grain. It was now up to the people of Illinois to decide the issue.

Election day in 1858 came on November 2, and it rained continuously throughout the day. But this did not keep an overwhelming majority of the electorate from casting its ballot. After traveling all over the state to



hear the issues of the campaign debated, these rugged Illinoisans were not going to relinquish their say in the matter because of a little bad weather.

What is so often overlooked about the Lincoln-Douglas contest of 1858 is the fact that Lincoln actually won the popular vote by a four thousand plurality. Through gerrymandered election districts, however, the Democrats retained control of the State Legislature which, in those days, chose United States Senators instead of having them elected directly by the people, as now provided for in the 17th Amendment. When the Illinois Legislature convened to ballot formally for senator, there was still a lingering hope that some disgruntled Buchanan Democrats might turn to Lincoln. When the final vote of the Legislature was counted, however, Douglas was clearly the victor.

Asked how he felt about the outcome, Lincoln issued a statement made famous again in 1952 by Adlai Stevenson: "I feel like the boy who stubbed his toe in the dark. It hurt too much to laugh and he was too big to cry." Then in prophetic accuracy he quipped: "Another blowup is coming soon and we shall have some fun again."

In retrospect, the Great Debates revealed to the people the paramount difference between the two candidates: where Lincoln regarded slavery a "moral, social and political wrong," Douglas completely evaded the moral issue. And though the debates failed to elect Lincoln—in spite of his winning the

popular vote—they were instrumental in helping the newly formed Republican Party capture a majority of the 1858 Congressional elections.

But the importance of the Lincoln-Douglas debates far transcended the election of 1858. They had provided Lincoln with a national prominence that enabled him to muster more than mere "favorite son" support in the Republican National Convention of 1860. Without such widespread support, it is unlikely that he would have ever received the nomination or, consequently, been elected President.

As for Douglas, the debates marked the beginning of the end. He had been returned to the Senate, but his Freeport Doctrine aroused bitter hatreds in the South. Two years later, when the Democratic Convention insisted on him as its candidate for President, the South bolted the party rather than assent, shattering all hopes of a Democratic victory. Thus, the final outcome of the 1860 election was determined, to a large extent, by the heated political debates that had occurred two years before.

A candidate running for public office this year might conceivably learn much from those Great Debates that were held on the Illinois prairie one hundred years ago. Certainly one inference seems particularly relevant: There is no real substitute—whether it be flowery oratory or clever campaign slogans—for a complete and candid discussion of the issues before the people.

## Kashmir and the Kashmir Impasse

HERBERT J. VENT  
*University of Alabama*  
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CAPTAIN ROBERT B. MONIER  
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Why should one be particularly interested in Kashmir? That is an entirely valid question when there are so many familiar and exciting places in the world to evoke international attention. To most people Kashmir is but an obscure and mysterious land. How-

ever, for various reasons this exotic land located in the Himalayas should be known to all of us, because therein are found serious factors impinging upon the success of a partitioned India and, more importantly, upon world peace.

Dr. Frank Graham, United Nations mediator in Kashmir spoke thus before the U. N. Security Council on October 18, 1951: "... the chief roadblock in the way of cooperation of India and Pakistan is the Kashmir dispute. The prior settlement of the Kashmir dispute would help clear the way for the settlement of other disputes of importance to the life of millions of people in India and Pakistan." On October 10, 1952, Dr. Graham further stated to the Security Council: "The cooperation of India and Pakistan in the demilitarization of the State of Jammu and Kashmir, in the self-determination of the people of the State, and in the larger release of budgets into constructive programs, might become one of the turning points in the history of our times toward the cooperation of all nations for the larger self-determination of peoples . . ."

Dr. Ralph Bunche, who gained fame as a United Nation's mediator in the Arab-Israeli dispute, on February 6, 1953, made the following statement: "Kashmir is one situation you could never localize if it should flare up. It would influence the whole Moslem world." He considered it potentially the most dangerous in the world.

As far back as 1948 Philip Noel-Baker, the British delegate to the Security Council, had identified the Kashmir dispute as "the greatest and the gravest single issue in international affairs." Pointing out that "India and Pakistan have an overriding common interest in settling this question" he showed that "Kashmir has become the very pivot of their relations" and prophesied that Kashmir constitutes "the crossroads at which the future course of history will be decided."

That the top leaders of both the great nations occupying the vast Indian sub-continent have long been deeply conscious of the portentous nature of the Kashmir issue is indicated in the following statements. On July 3, 1950, Prime Minister Nehru of India said, "on its satisfactory solution depends the future of Indo-Pakistan relations."

The late Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan, of Pakistan on December 6, 1950, said, "... divided by the suspicions which the

Kashmir dispute keeps alive, it is unrealistic to talk of either Pakistan or Bharat (India) successfully playing their role in Asia."

The Kashmir dispute is still unsettled and these statements of the seriousness of the problems in Kashmir and Jammu remain as valid as when uttered. Insight into the geography and history of this inherently rich but poverty stricken land provides some background for better understanding the political situation that now prevails.

#### GENERAL GEOGRAPHY

*Size and Boundaries.* Kashmir is about the size of the state of Kansas, having an area of approximately 84,000 square miles. It is situated like a cap at the top of Pakistan and India. The state extends through 10 degrees of latitude and 11 of longitude; thus it is a compact land unit, albeit badly dissected by rugged mountain ranges. The precise latitudinal boundaries are of little concern, for it is primarily varying elevations rather than differences in latitude which create the sundry natural environments of Kashmir.

The state of Kashmir is almost surrounded by mountain ranges of the Himalayas. The highest peaks are Mount Godwin Austin, 28,250 feet; Nanga Parbat 27,000 feet; Haramosh, 24,270 feet; and Nunkin, 24,000 feet. These are indeed some of the world's most impressive and formidable mountains.

Kashmir has long, common boundaries with Pakistan, India, Tibet, and Sinkiang. Its boundary with Pakistan is 580 miles in length.

*Rivers.* To a great extent Kashmir is the upper part of the Indus basin. The Punjab rivers of Pakistan have their sources in the mountains of Kashmir. The arid lands of Pakistan are highly dependent upon these rivers for irrigation and successful agriculture. Uninterrupted access to these waters is of vital concern to farmers of the Punjab. Today India controls territory at the headwaters of these life-sustaining rivers.

The Indus is the most important river of Kashmir. However, the Jhelum and Chenab are necessary to maintain agricultural production levels in the valley of Kashmir. Sev-

eral streams flow into the Punjab region and have considerable local importance.

Stream flow in the rivers in this part of the world is quite irregular. During the spring with melting snows and glaciers—and with bursting glacial dams—many rivers go on a rampage and devastate settlements. Winter stream flow however is generally low and is fed largely by winter rains in this Mediterranean-like climate.

It is significant that Kashmir's glaciers are on the whole receding. This probability of smaller stream flow augurs dire consequences for the future in the already water-deficient areas of Pakistan and the Punjab.

The many streams, with origins at high elevations, provide a good hydro-electric power potential. These streams will undoubtedly be harnessed at some future date when calm reigns once more, and will provide power for industry based upon agricultural, forest, and mineral resources of Kashmir.

*Climate.* There is a wide variety of climate due to considerable variations in elevation. Some areas are tropical (Jammu); some are sub-tropical (foothills of the south); some are temperate (valley of Kashmir); and others are arctic (Ladakh). Precipitation varies from 3 inches at Leh and 7 inches in the Indus Valley to 27 inches in the Jhelum Valley and 72 inches at Sonamerg. All the mountain passes are snowbound in the winter. At that time airlifts are commonly employed, although recently constructed tunnels have aided land transportation. In spite of what appears to be a highly restrictive climatic pattern, the delightful climates of some areas are among Kashmir's leading assets for future development.

The climate of Kashmir offers many attractions to tourists—most of whom now come from India, but there is a sprinkling of Europeans and Americans. Autumn is the best time for tourists because of scanty rain, clear skies, and cool temperatures. Of course, the mountain retreats seem pleasant to the Indians anytime during the enervating monsoon season.

Kashmir is highly dependent upon the tourist business. This will continue to be so until its mineral and power resources are more extensively exploited. Tourist income assists in balancing a deficit budget. Many Kashmiris are engaged in tourism, it being one of their most important sources of income and an occupation which must continue to receive encouragement.

*Flora and Fauna.* At least 3,000 species of flowering plants have been identified in the Kashmir. At lower elevations figs, cherries, apricots, apples, pears, and peaches are grown in abundance. In the highlands most of the flora consists of trees, shrubs, willows, and flowers. About 11,000 square miles are forest covered. It is estimated that approximately 200 million cubic feet of timber could be cut for market at this time if markets were available.

Among the fauna the most commonly observed are the cow, goat, leopard, ibex, stag, bear, and sheep-antelope. The Kashmir goat is the source of the world-famous Cashmere shawls.

*Population.* In 1950 the population of Kashmir was estimated to be 4.37 million. Most of the people are of Indo-Aryan origin. However, the Ladakhi are of Mongolian stock. Kashmir is also a multilingual state, with inhabitants speaking Kashmiri, Dogri, Punjabi, Gojri, Pahavi, Bodhi, and Shinh. Lastly, there are also several religions. Approximately 77 per cent of the people are Moslem, 20 per cent Hindu, 1.5 per cent Sikh, and 1 per cent Buddhist. Jammu province was slightly over half Moslem on the eve of partition in 1947; Kashmir was mostly Hindu; Ladakh was Buddhist; and Baltistan and Gilgit were Moslem. Because of war and riots since 1947, there has been some change in religious and lingual composition. All this diversity is inimical to cohesiveness within Kashmir itself. Outside influences easily identify the exploitable ingredients which tend to keep this area a seething cauldron. *Trade.* Imports are much in excess of exports. What Kashmir has to sell consists mostly of cheap raw materials, whereas its imports



consist of costly cotton goods, oils, leather, salt, and metal manufactures. Even some foods are imported. This is a sad commentary on lack of development of an inherently rich land.

There are only sixteen miles of railways in the state and but very few miles of all-weather roads. Kashmir has long suffered and continues to suffer from a scarcity of transportation networks.

*Summary of the General Geography of Kashmir.* It consists of a number of liabilities and a few assets. In the former category belong rough terrain, floods, climatic variability, much wasteland, and seismic disturbances in its youthful mountains. Assets consist of latent economic power in its resources, a self-helpful people, and attractive scenery. Its strategic location is both an asset and a liability. Kashmir will receive attention and efforts toward a build-up because of its location, but by the same token it may become an international football and an area of future armed conflict between India and Pakistan—or between the free and the Communist world.

#### HISTORY

This requires only a few brief statements in this article. Being in a crossroads location Kashmir has absorbed a variety of invaders from many invasions. In time this constant surge of invasions left its imprint upon the people. They became submissive and lost their initiative. Disorder broke down the various social institutions. The result was an excessively high rate of illiteracy, a low standard of living, and an almost complete lack of concern by officials for the general welfare of the population. Also the substance to provide it was missing in the perpetually barren economy.

At the time of the partition in 1947 Kashmir was one of the princely states of India. It, along with Hyderabad and Junagadh, assumed a special significance at this time because none of them readily acceded to India or Pakistan. Other princely states, and there were 552, made a smooth transition.

Under its status as a princely state Kash-

mir enjoyed a fair degree of local autonomy. It acknowledged British suzerainty in matters of defense, communications, and foreign affairs. This was also true in the other princely states in varying degrees.

When India became independent in August 1947 such states as Kashmir were pressed by the last Viceroy, Lord Mountbatten, to accede without delay to India or Pakistan. Accession to Pakistan, it is generally agreed, would have been accepted at that time. However, the Maharajah of Kashmir delayed, possibly hoping for something impossible at that time — independence. Developments moved fast during the summer of 1947, faster than the Maharajah was able to evaluate them.

#### ACCESSION TO INDIA AND RESULTING PROBLEMS

In the summer of 1947, tribes from the northwest invaded the valley of Kashmir and caused the Maharajah to flee to Jammu, whereupon he solicited Indian troops. Lord Mountbatten pointed out that troops couldn't be sent unless Kashmir first became legally part of India by accession. Indian leadership promised that when peace and order were restored the matter of accession would be settled by a popular vote. The Maharajah acceded. Swift Indian assistance soon expelled the invaders from the valley of Kashmir. The promised plebiscite has never been held, although until 1957 it was Nehru's stand that it would. The reasons for failure to hold the plebiscite are complicated.

India accused Pakistan of inciting continuing raids, providing supplies for raiders, and providing leadership and soldiers for these disruptive elements. Pakistan disclaimed all responsibility for the revolts. It said they were locally inspired in order to throw off the yoke of an autocratic leader, the Maharajah, who was a Hindu leader of a preponderantly Moslem population.

Pakistan maintained that the Maharajah had no authority to accede to India since a successful revolt had overthrown his government and had compelled him to flee the capital. Also, the Pakistan government said that

the Indian Constitution Act didn't recognize a conditional accession; therefore, the act of the Maharajah was invalid. India naturally took an opposing point of view, holding that the accession of the Maharajah to India was legal; that Pakistan was the aggressor; that India possessed full legal and moral responsibility for the security of Kashmir; and that Pakistan may not share in the arrangements for holding the plebiscite. By the end of the violent phase of the dispute, Pakistan occupied considerable portions of west and north Kashmir — areas known as Azad Kashmir and the Gilgit Agency. These are still occupied by Pakistan. India retains jurisdiction over all of the remainder, and larger portion, of Kashmir.

The story of international negotiation began in 1948 with an Indian decision on January 1 to take the issue to the Security Council. The intention of India at this point wasn't a plebiscite, but to have Pakistan reprimanded for assisting tribesmen for acts of aggression against India.

The Security Council selected a five-man commission on India and Pakistan to decide how to carry out a plebiscite. A cease fire and demilitarization had to come first. On January 1, 1949 a cease fire was agreed upon, and there have been no major violations of that agreement. However, there has never been an agreement on demilitarization. Both Pakistan and India maintain substantial numbers of troops in Kashmir with great economic drain upon both powers.

The United Nations mediators assigned to the Kashmir dispute have been singularly unsuccessful. One of them, Sir Owen Dixon, put forth a proposal to hold a plebiscite in the valley of Kashmir and some adjacent territories and to partition the remainder. This was rejected by India while Pakistan was still considering the proposal. Later Dr. Graham, Security Council representative, made several attempts to obtain an agreement on demilitarization. All of his attempts met with failure.

Numerous barriers have invariably arisen when solution seemed probable. For Ex-

ample, in 1953 Nehru insisted that although a plebiscite surely must be held in the entire state, it wouldn't be binding on the matter of accession. Other considerations, economic and geographic, would have to be considered. Also, he said that refugees who had fled to Pakistan would be denied a vote. These obviously were attempts to obtain a favorable electorate for the Indian cause. Then later in 1953, he said United States aid to Pakistan had altered his thinking on withdrawing Indian forces from Kashmir, this under the pretext of security for India.

This dispute has gone on so long and has assumed such a prominent position in all Indo-Pakistan relationships that retreat on the part of either would result in the loss of face, or even loss of power, of the respective leaders in the two countries. A decision might also have serious implications for the 35 to 40 million Moslems who reside in India and for the 12 million Hindus who still reside in Pakistan. Either side is reluctant to do anything that would set off a religious war and jeopardize the sovereign status of its respective nation.

Pakistan officials and certain elements in Kashmir accuse India's leaders of giving but lip-service to the concept of self-determination, despite Nehru's declaration at Bandung to the effect that he was against colonialism and was for self-determination. It would appear that Nehru has separate humanitarian philosophies for foreign and domestic consumption.

India's reform policies and expenditures in Kashmir are of the magnitude made only by a country intent on staying and reaping the harvest of its programming and work. There has been a large reduction of illiteracy; the big estates have been dissolved and land given to those who cultivate it; and Kashmir has been given autonomy in the all India Union. In practice, though, this autonomy has been restrictive in nature. For example, when the long-time Moslem leader and Prime Minister of Kashmir after the accession, Abdullah, voiced opposition to Indian policy in his state, he was arrested and imprisoned.

The present prime minister, Bakshi Ghulam Mohammed, is seemingly more agreeably inclined toward the Indian viewpoint.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

After nine years there remain many problems in the Kashmir impasse and the plebiscite seems to be a dead issue insofar as India is concerned. Pakistani and Indian troops remain in Kashmir, resulting in continuing tensions and an economic drain on both India and Pakistan. Pakistan won't agree to withdrawal of its troops since it desires to hold Azad Kashmir and Gilgit, regardless of the cost. India will not withdraw its troops because it considers Kashmir to be an integral part of the sovereign state of India, and has announced that no plebiscite will be held in Kashmir. Lastly, although this area may possess geological unity, it by no means possesses geographic, linguistic, ethnologic, or economic unity. It is but an agglomeration brought together in the past under the political power of a single

Maharajah. These barriers need to be broken down before Kashmir can possess unity. Perhaps, India is achieving unity through its reform program.

At this time it is difficult to predict the future course of events in Kashmir. Its location makes it a pivotal area. Should the situation slip from the grasp of India and Pakistan, the U.S.S.R. or Communist China could move in and gain a foothold in the Indian sub-continent. American military aid to Pakistan is based in part upon this dangerous possibility, which poses a serious threat to the free world nations.

The West has a big stake in the outcome of the Kashmir impasse. Its resolution would allow both India and Pakistan to attack the many difficult domestic problems in their respective countries and advance the general welfare of their nearly one-half billion people. Should this come about, an important bulwark would be provided for the security of the free world community of nations.

## Congressional Reapportionment by the Method of Equal Proportions

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Ever since 1941, when Congress amended the Reapportionment Act of 1929 and made the method of equal proportions mandatory, there has been a real problem for non-mathematically inclined teachers of American Government in explaining this process to members of their classes. While the law of 1929 made equal proportions a sort of optional method, and thus allowed a timid professor a bit of discretion on the question of "to explain or not to explain," the 1941 change made the method standard operating procedure. Writers of textbooks have, almost without exception, side-stepped the difficulty

by simply observing that "the process is too involved and complex for explanation here" along with a reference or two to sources of adequate explanations. Invariably, these "adequate" explanations, while excellent in themselves, are not for the amateur. It is therefore the purpose of this report to try to explain the process in terms that those who have difficulty with mathematics beyond the level of long division (and that, apparently, includes a large number of political scientists) will find abundantly clear.

There need be few words on the importance of the process of apportionment among



the states of the members of the House of Representatives. Obviously, not only is the number of members of the House that a state will have involved, but also the electoral votes of each state are at stake. In the reapportionment after the 1910 and 1930 censuses the method of major fractions was used. In 1920, there was no reapportionment due to Congressional neglect. As already noted, the law was amended after the 1940 census to make equal proportions the required method. Basically, the two methods vary in results in that major fractions gives the smallest *absolute* difference between states in the individual person's share in a Representative, while equal proportions gives the minimum *relative* difference between states in both the average population per district and individual's share in a Representative. The distinction between the two approaches is obvious. For example, if a professor is teaching twelve hours of classes per week and the university authorities assign to him an additional three hour class, the three hour increase is absolute, but the relative increase is twenty-five per cent. A colleague with a nine-hour teaching load who would be given a similar three-hour increase would have the same absolute increase but his relative difference would be 33-1/3%.

The problem involved in the selection of methods of reapportionment is how to make the average population per representation as nearly equal as possible. The problem then, for example, is whether to recognize Michigan or California for an additional Representative. The mathematical answer is that a state should have an additional representative when by doing so the *difference* between its population and the number of Representatives assigned to it on the one hand, and population and representation of the second state on the other hand will then be at the lowest possible point and not capable of being reduced further by increasing or decreasing the representation of one state or the other. Otherwise the representation should not be changed.

Since the method of equal proportions

employs relative rather than absolute differences, and since this is now the required method, it would appear that our lawmakers are anxious to make each state as nearly equal as possible from the point of view of their respective populations. Generally speaking, the equal proportions method favors slightly the smaller states.

The complete process of reapportionment by this method begins with the preparation of a priority list. Since, under the Constitution, each state must have at least one Representative, regardless of population, the priority listing applies with the forty-ninth member of the House. The figures on this list are secured by multiplying the population of each state successively by a series of multipliers. These multipliers are secured by determining the geometric mean of successive numbers of Representatives, 2, 3, 4, etc. each state already having one Representative assigned. The geometric mean of any two numbers is the square root of their product. Thus, the procedure will involve determining successively the square root of 1 x 2, 2 x 3, 3 x 4, and so down the line to a total somewhat greater than the expected assignment of Representatives for that state.

To reduce the mathematical bulk, and in the interest of greater accuracy, the reciprocal of each of these numbers will be determined. These will be the multipliers. These multipliers, once compiled, will be good indefinitely and the process each ten years will actually start with this point, the multipliers being already set. The procedure for obtaining these multipliers, put in mathematical form would appear as follows:

$$\text{Multiplier} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(2-1)}} = \frac{1}{1.414,213,6}$$

The reciprocal of 1.414,213,6 is 0.707,106,78 (which is simply 1 divided by 1.414,213,6, as, for example, the reciprocal of 6 is 1/6.)

The priority list numbers will be secured by multiplying the population of each state in turn by these multipliers applicable to a second Representative, a third, a fourth, and on to the approximate number expected from that state. The result is a series of priority

numbers for each state. These will be listed in order from the highest to the lowest, and Representatives will be allotted to these state numbrs until all 435 members have been apportioned. Because of the basic apportionment of one Representative to each state, this particular process will involve only 387 Representatives, or, in other words, it will begin with the forty-ninth Representative.

Thus, to take a specific state, such as Michigan, the procedure would work out like this:

#### MICHIGAN

(Population)  $6,371,766 \times$  (the reciprocal of the square root of  $1 \times 2$ )  $.707,106,78 =$  (Priority number for second Representative)  
 $6,371,766 \times$  (the reciprocal of the square

root of  $2 \times 3$ )  $.408,248,29 =$  (Priority number for third Representative)

This process would be continued for a total number of Representatives slightly in excess of the approximation of the number of Representatives to which Michigan would be entitled, eighteen at present. These priority numbers for Michigan would then be intermingled with the numbers of the other states and the entire list made up in descending order from highest to lowest. The state with the largest priority number would get the first additional Representative, the state with the second highest would get the second and so on down the line. States with only one member of the House — Delaware, Nevada, Vermont, and Wyoming — would not appear in this priority list.

## Our Background Preparation in Far Eastern Studies Needs Reexamination

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A recent article in the *NEA Journal*<sup>1</sup> focusing attention on the limited and rather warped treatment of Asia in our nation's social studies textbooks triggered thoughts of another educational level where we need to reevaluate our handling of Asia and her problems. A study of history department offerings at the undergraduate level in over 100 college and university catalogs affirmed what might be considered a preconceived notion about the paucity of background courses available in Asian history and politics.

During my three years as supervising principal of the American School in Japan, at Tokyo, the lack of trained teachers in this historical area was effectively brought to our attention. The high school social studies program was revamped along realistic lines con-

sidering that we were on the front doorstep of Asia. The 9th grade social studies elective was structured to spend more time on Oriental history and culture than usual in the typical American high school class. The 10th grade social studies elective stressed world governments with a particular study of Japan's history and current political organization. United States history was required of all 11th graders with appropriate attention being paid to this country's foreign policy relations with the Orient. At the 12th grade level a seminar-type elective in Far Eastern affairs was offered.

The program was defensibly designed, but locating suitable instructional materials and a prepared stateside teacher provided a significant problem in staff recruitment. There

were few qualified social studies teachers available with even a one-course exposure to Far Eastern affairs.

When appraising the training-teaching cycle in this area of study, we have in a sense reached an impasse. Our nation's colleges presently provide limited course offerings in Far Eastern affairs for both the prospective social studies teacher and other students as well. As a result we have an inadequately prepared personnel pool to teach or to develop instructional materials in Far Eastern affairs which are geared most specifically for the secondary level.

My examination of undergraduate history course offerings in over 100 schools of varying size, coed and non-coed and in different locations throughout the country produced some expected findings and others which were interesting. As might be anticipated, the larger the college or university, the greater likelihood of some course offerings in Far Eastern history.

Yet some of our large state universities offered no course in this area at all. Others had very extensive programs in Far Eastern studies. In some schools where there was no course in Far Eastern history, the undergraduate student might possibly acquire a passing acquaintance with problems of this theater of the world through a freshman history of civilization course. In other schools the Far East could conceivably be interwoven through a political science survey course or one on comparative government.

In some smaller colleges and in some universities the listed course in Far Eastern history was offered on demand only and not even on an alternate year basis. A description of course contents in a number of current college catalogs indicated that the emphasis was almost exclusively centered on China.

Perhaps the most unexpected, as well as the least explainable, finding was that womens' colleges were far more likely to have a regularly scheduled course in Far Eastern history in the junior or senior year than men's colleges. In fact a number of the

renowned, private men's colleges in the East listed no course in Far Eastern history. In some of the smallest colleges, irrespective of enrollment or possible course offered in Far Eastern history, the spread of courses in national development or specialized eras of ancient, medieval and modern European history was often quite substantial and far outweighed any consideration of the Far East.

Asia is the world's largest land mass and contains about half its population. However, our history course offerings at the undergraduate level do little to acquaint students with the historical background of this area, but do ordinarily enable the student to get more than a generous immersion in European history and affairs. Our nation's European heritage helps to explain this stress, of course. But the point is that we need to re-examine the undergraduate history program to help overcome this imbalance.

Secondary school world history courses ordinarily start in September with the rise of civilization in the Fertile Crescent. A chronological westward movement then follows, geographically linked to the Mediterranean basin, with little turning back to view the Orient. World history textbooks need not be all-inclusive. However, publishers are faced with the problem of seeking to meet popular demand by presenting a global concept without unduly abridging the customary Europeanized version of world civilization. In trying to cover the whole sweep of human history to include some study of the Far East and Pan America, many textbooks of necessity result in being only a predominantly chronological survey of the past 6000 years which is supposed to be covered in one ten-month school year.

There is reason to believe that much of what is written in our history and geography textbooks about Asia reveals "inaccuracies, stereotypes, and lack of proper balance in the selection and emphasis of teaching materials on Asian countries. Actually the quality of textbook treatment of Asian matters could be improved without devoting more space to Asia."<sup>2</sup>



This nation's foreign policy relations with Asia up through recent years have been more than a little turbid. To some people, one Asian is just like another . . . they are all members of the yellow race, have slanted eyes, eat rice, speak with the same sing-song language, live in sub-standard houses and on through the usual biased impressions. There is no one Asian any more than there is one European. In recent years Asia has certainly served as an arena where international tensions have been aroused, yet "Asia was the scene of our clearest foreign policy defeat in recent years."<sup>3</sup> Kennan says that "our relations to the peoples of the Far East have been colored by a certain sentimentality toward the Chinese."<sup>4</sup> This Kennan believes stems from the aftermath of the Open Door notes of 1899.

The summary of findings pertaining to college offerings in Far Eastern history and

the significant comments about our basic national misconceptions regarding the Far East, are persuasive evidence that we need to inform more people about Asia and her problems. Certainly the background training of prospective secondary school social studies teachers should include some directed study exposure to this part of the world.

We owe to ourselves and to our expanding contacts with Asians to have more than a superficial knowledge of Asia which is still currently prejudiced and sentimental. Our country needs youngsters familiarized with, and hopefully educated for, the whole world and not just Western civilization.

<sup>1</sup> Merrill Hartshorn "Asia in Western Textbooks," *NEA Journal*, Feb, 1957, p. 91.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.* p. 92.

<sup>3</sup> Edwin O. Reischauer, *Wanted: An Asian Policy*, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1955, p. 4.

<sup>4</sup> George F. Kennan, *American Diplomacy 1900-1950*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1951, p. 53.

## Testing an Eighteenth-Century Personality

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"Should the Historian Study Psychology?" queried Lewis M. Terman, at the annual gathering of western historians in the 1940 meeting of the Pacific coast Branch of the American Historical Association.<sup>1</sup> It was a challenging question that received some comment but no answer. Here, for the first time among historians if not among psychologists, is an illustration of what may be done with the application of a standardized personality measurement to a historic character.

Since the days of William James psychology as an intellectual discipline has become part and parcel of American life. The historian who pretends to measure human experience in its "totality" must study not only the records contemporary with his subjects,

he must broaden the scope of those studies to include whatever is available. But also let him consider his matter in the light of modern science. Figures in the past are compared, for example, with one another and with men of today. Writers of the past are held to the standards of twentieth century composition. Histories and biographies are written with an eye to modern scientific economics and political science. Let the historian, then, and especially the biographer, think of his problems with the aid of such scientific devices as are available, that he may better judge the personality, intelligence, and character of the men and women who peopled town and countryside of other times.

Psychology, as an awareness of the human mind with its reactions and with its interplay of responses to emotional and intellectual stimuli, has been recognized and utilized by a succession of authors. Gamaliel Bradford and Lytton Strachey have examined persons of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries with special references to their motives: intellectual and emotional. Sigmund Freud and others have probed the subconscious of such personalities as Leonardo da Vinci and Martin Luther. Francis Hackett has called himself a "psycho-historian" in his studies of Francis I and Henry VIII. But these eminent enterprises require the primary ability to understand human nature and behavior, and they are extremely subjective. The psychoanalytic work of Freud in his consideration of Leonardo is necessarily a closed prospect to the majority of professional historians, and his findings, because of their subjectivity, are highly suspect among "scientific" biographers.

Professor Terman suggested testing personalities of history with the same tools that are used daily in schools, colleges, and business to determine what psychologists call a "profile" of social adjustment and aptitudes. There are a number of such objective devices of high validity and reliability. *Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale*, *Bell Adjustment Inventory*, *Allport-Vernon Test of Values*,<sup>2</sup> *California Test of Personality*, and *The Personality Inventory*<sup>3</sup> all offer possibilities of use. The last one is undoubtedly the best, since it is relatively long and has six different profiles. These profiles are shown by percentile rank above and below the norm on a graph. When used for its intended purpose the test is self-administered, but obviously when given to a deceased personage his answers must be taken from something he has written. Some of the test items must therefore be omitted. This procedure will impair the significance of the result only in extreme cases: for instance, if the person were far advanced in neurosis, and a score above the ninety-eighth percentile might indicate the need of psychiatric

treatment.<sup>4</sup>

Robert G. Bernreuter's *The Personality Inventory* was administered to the colorful colonial governor of Maryland, Horatio Sharpe (1718-1790), and answered from his correspondence and speeches written or recorded before he was fifty-five in 1773.<sup>5</sup> All but three of the one hundred twenty-five items in this "inventory" could be answered by a direct quotation, or (in a few cases) from an undeniable impression gained from the study of Sharpe's life. With the six different scores thus obtained, a personality profile of Horatio Sharpe, deceased more than a century and a half, is given that, when applied to all his contemporaries in the eighteenth century, will have the same reliability as the results of the same test given to thousands of persons now living.

Some immediate objections to such a procedure arise: life in the eighteenth century was different from the more complex existence of our contemporary America. Human values, however, were similar and neurotic patterns were evident, although often not recognized, and perhaps not as prevalent nor as acute. Basically life was not remote then from the same emotional stresses that afflict men now. Another criticism might be that one cannot possibly now know what went through the mind of a man dead for over a hundred fifty years; but if that were the case, then all biography and history must be only guesswork, no matter what the method of evaluation. It must be remembered that a member of the upper classes in the eighteenth century was usually highly literate, and adding to this his natural penchant for and necessity of writing letters, over the course of fifteen or twenty years a great deal of his inner thinking would find its way on to paper. Life was at a slower tempo and such men could have more time with their own thoughts. They recorded on paper for their friends at a distance ideas that would probably now be discussed in person. Sharpe entrusted his innermost thoughts to the letters which he dispatched to his brothers regularly for twenty years. These missives were

meant for no other eyes than those of his seven brothers in England, his friends and advisers. From them has been drawn most of the information used in this evaluation.

Since the assumptions in the same test administered to twentieth century persons have been found to be remarkably valid, will it not follow that similar assumptions in similar tests, even though the individual under consideration lived in the eighteenth century, will likewise be found to be valid? If so, we would expect the data obtained to illuminate the subject's possible (1) neurotic tendency, (2) self-sufficiency, (3) dominance-submission, (4) confidence in himself, (5) introversion-extroversion, and (6) sociability.<sup>6</sup>

Possibly the most important objection to testing a deceased person may be criticism of the whole concept of objectively measuring attributes of personality. The psychologists themselves are not agreed. The psychoanalysts tend to discount standardized measurements, while the behaviorists may rely on "objective" tests to the exclusion of all "subjective" estimation. Many institutions, however, use them as indications of tendency in social adjustment. The military service during World War II experienced marked success in the use of standardized tests for many purposes. If the tests, in their turn, have been constructed scientifically, and refined through use and revision, they can serve their purposes remarkably well. The test used in this case has a validity coefficient ranging from .84 to 1.00 on a percentage basis with 1.00 as perfection, indicating that it measures what it purports to measure with a high degree of accuracy. Its reliability, or tendency to produce similar results in similar situations, is .85 to .92, again significantly high.<sup>7</sup>

From the conventional subjective approach to biographical evaluation of historic personalities, it has always been possible to discern most of the vagaries of character exhibited in their correspondence and in other documents; now, however, by applying the more precise methodology only recently

made available by psychological science, it has become possible to check on the biographer's personal opinions, and to give an exact numerical index to the categories of personality measurement mentioned before. It is possible that the two types of evaluation may vary considerably. A subjective characterization of Sharpe might be given as follows (the reader should observe how it varies from or is corroborated by the results of a standardized test):

Horatio Sharpe was born November 15, 1718, near Hull in Yorkshire, and died at Hampstead, a suburb of London, November 9, 1790, having spent some ten years in the army, twenty years in Maryland, and about seventeen years in retirement in England. He was lieutenant-governor of Lord Baltimore's proprietary colony in America from 1753 to 1769, sixteen of his twenty years in the New World. He came from a large and influential family of Whigs of eighteenth century England. As a member of the upper middle class he probably enjoyed most of the advantages and was also subject to the prejudices and shortcomings peculiar to his station. It is not likely that he ever had to endure many of the hardships that bore down on the dependent and laboring groups of his time. He obviously was an educated, cultured person with diverse although not particularly imaginative interests. He seems to have been more than ordinarily gregarious, entertaining lavishly, and gathering an impressive roster of friends during his stay in Maryland. The only abnormal manifestation of his long life was his failure to acquire a wife. Incidentally, only one of his seven brothers is known to have been married, and he only after the age of fifty. On the whole he would appear to have been an extremely well-balanced member of society placed by birth in the sphere of leadership in which he discharged his duties with apparent success and aplomb. Such a person in the twentieth century might be expected to produce a personality profile well above the average as measured on such a scale as Bernreuter's. Let us see how Governor Sharpe's recorded



thoughts place him in relationship to the modern norms established by several hundred unselected American males.

On the first section of *The Personality Inventory*, designed to give a measure of neurotic tendency, he appears in the twenty-sixth percentile, showing that he tended "... to be very well balanced emotionally." A score above the ninety-eighth percentile would indicate need for psychiatric therapy.<sup>8</sup>

The measure of self-sufficiency showed Sharpe to be at the tenth percentile, or less able to stand solitude or make judgments unaided, than ninety per cent of the people. This attribute might escape the attention of the most careful analyst of his character. It is certainly evident that he required frequent advice, and that he was reluctant to make decisions without the concurrence of his brothers and Lord Baltimore. On the other hand, only his enemies among his contemporaries seem to have discerned this weakness. Jonathan Boucher, loyalist minister, accused him of "tame and time-serving conduct."<sup>9</sup> Daniel Dulany, outstanding exponent of "no taxation without representation" in 1765, later a discredited loyalist, and one of the most intelligent observers of Maryland politics, succinctly observed of the governor: "... pay him the Compliment due to his Station & you'll obtain your suit."<sup>10</sup> In contrast, the majority opinion seems to have been expressed in the effusive appraisal of William Eddis, Surveyor of Customs in Annapolis in 1773: "Colonel Sharpe has resided many years in this country, where he has established a reputation which reflects the highest honour on his public capacity, and on his private virtues." Such was the opinion in the "... province, which he has so long governed with honour to himself, satisfaction to the people, and fidelity to his sovereign."<sup>11</sup>

An absolute standard of introversion or extroversion stated in subjective terms is impossible of achievement. With the use, however, of the third scoring of *The Personality Inventory*, it is seen that Sharpe falls just outside the quarter of population

with the most extroverted characteristics. His rank here is at the twenty-seventh percentile. According to the author of the test, "those scoring low ... rarely worry, seldom suffer emotional upsets, and rarely substitute day dreaming for action."<sup>12</sup> That Sharpe was a man of action is borne out by his numerous activities on the frontier during the French and Indian War, and typified by his assurance given to the Earl of Loudoun in 1757, when men to defend the west against Indians were scarce, that he would send "three or four Companies of Militia ... to Fort Frederick on the first Notice," and accompany them himself.<sup>13</sup> If the modern personality scoring technique is a valid measure, an exact numerical value may be assigned to him in the relative comparison of extroverts and introverts.

Only twenty-one per cent of modern men would score higher than Sharpe in the dominance-submission scale, and presumably this was true in his own setting. He had a dominating personality, and in a face to face situation, as his military associates would bear witness, he was a man "not to trifle with."<sup>14</sup> The subjective and objective evidence on this point is in agreement, but as before, it is possible to define numerically the degree of his submission to royal authority and to tradition.

On the fifth measure of the test, "those scoring low tend to be wholesomely self-confident and to be very well adjusted to their environment."<sup>15</sup> Sharpe's standing at the thirtieth percentile bears out the possible subjective judgment that he was not "hamperingly self-conscious," and that he could usually meet the world on its own terms.

The *Manual* continues: "A measure of sociability. Persons scoring high on this scale tend to be non-social, solitary, or independent. Those scoring low tend to be sociable and gregarious."<sup>16</sup> The governor's score placed him in the fifth percentile. Few persons loved a party more than he, and the dancing at his seat on the Severn River often lasted until dawn, and his wine imported from Madeira and Europe flowed in

convivial profusion. There is a story that his secretary's sister, visiting from London, danced with George Washington at one of these parties while Benjamin Franklin played the tune on musical glasses. It would be interesting to know how this placement on the sociability scale compares with, for instance, that of Washington in the eighteenth century, or that of the present governor of Maryland.

Thus appears the picture of a man, dominant in an immediate situation: a man of action, unimaginative, yet needing encouragement and advice, but on the whole, well adjusted to his aristocratic surroundings, and unlikely to have any serious neurotic hindrance. Graphically portrayed as a line on paper comparable to the norms established in 1938 for adult males, his line is not the average, nor is it all below or all above the average line.

<sup>1</sup> Lewis M. Terman, "Should the Historian Study Psychology?" *Pacific Coast Historical Review*, X (June, 1941), 209-216.

<sup>2</sup> This test would also serve for the present purpose.

<sup>3</sup> Robert G. Bernreuter, *The Personality Inventory* (Stanford University Press, 1935). *The California Test of Personality* might be a satisfactory measure, but its publisher, California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Boulevard, Los Angeles 28, California, was unwilling to allow its material to be used for this purpose.

<sup>4</sup> Robert G. Bernreuter, *Manual for the Personality Inventory* (Stanford University Press, 1935).

<sup>5</sup> The main body of Sharpe's correspondence is published in *Archives of Maryland*, "Correspondence of Horatio Sharpe," edited by William Hand Browne, vols. VI, IX, XIV, XXXI (Baltimore, 1888-1912), cited henceforth as *Md. Arch.* Other printed sources include *The Calvert Papers*, Maryland Historical Society Fund Publications 28 and 34 (Baltimore, 1889 and 1894); and a few items in nearly all the standard printed colonial collections. His unpublished letters are to be found in England in the Public Record Office, Colonial and War; in the British Museum, King's Manuscripts 205, Additional Manuscripts 15489; in the collections of the Bishops of London at Fulham Palace, and in the papers of the Archbishops of Canterbury at Lambeth Palace (Library of Congress Transcripts). In America,

Sharpe items appear in the Library of Congress, Manuscripts Division, Personal Miscellany; in Harvard College Library, Sparks Manuscripts; in Maryland Historical Society, Vertical File, Calvert Papers, Gilmore Papers; in Pennsylvania Historical Society, Dreer Collection; in Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, San Marino, California, Loudoun Papers and Abercromby Papers.

<sup>6</sup> Bernreuter, *Manual* . . .

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>9</sup> Jonathan Boucher, *Reminiscences of an American Loyalist* (London, 1926), p. 56.

<sup>10</sup> Daniel Dulany to Cecilius Calvert, September 10, 1764, *Calvert Papers*, II, 229.

<sup>11</sup> William Eddis, *Letters from America, Historical and Descriptive, Comprising Occurrences from 1769 to 1777, inclusive* (London, 1792), p. 20. Halifax to Sharpe, October 19, 1763, Public Record Office, C. O. 5/1280:200 (Library of Congress Transcripts). George Montagu-Dunk, 3rd Earl of Halifax, Secretary of State for the Southern Department, wrote in adulatory fashion to the governor over his handling of the colonial assembly during the French and Indian War. Calvert to Sharpe, February 29, 1764, *Md. Arch.*, XIV, 139, relayed George III's good opinion of Sharpe to him. Earl of Hillsborough to Sharpe, November 15, 1768, PRO, CO 5/1281:223 (Library of Congress Transcripts), send the king's approbation "of the attention you have . . . shown to all His commands." Hugh Hamersley to Sharpe, July 20, 1768, *Md. Arch.*, XIV, 515: Lord Baltimore's Secretary for Maryland, praised the governor's ". . . unwearied zeal to Promote the Welfare of his Province." John Thomas Scharf, *History of Maryland*, 3 vols. (Baltimore, 1879), II, 115, wrote: "His letter-books bear honorable testimony to a character somewhat hot tempered and arbitrary, it is true, but brave, honorable, faithful and intelligent; and had not the wisdom of others forced him into a hopelessly false position, Maryland could have recorded the names of a few better governors than Horatio Sharpe." When he was superseded in 1769 by Robert Eden, Baltimore's brother-in-law, a Maryland citizens' committee assured him that "We hope Sir for a long continuance of your presence among us, that yourself and the People may reciprocally experience the Blessings of Benevolence and Gratitude" (*Md. Arch.*, XXXI, 571).

<sup>12</sup> Bernreuter, *Manual* . . . , B3-I.

<sup>13</sup> Sharpe to Earl of Loudoun, November 15, 1757, PRO, WO 34/34 (Library of Congress Transcripts). See James High, "The Earl of Loudoun and Horatio Sharpe, 1757 and 1758," *Maryland Historical Magazine*, XLV (March, 1950), 27. Report to Board of Trade, 1762, British Museum, King's Manuscripts 205:213 (Library of Congress Transcripts), shows Sharpe's ability to cope with an immediate situation.

<sup>14</sup> Bernreuter, *Manual* . . . , B4-D.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, F1-C.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, F2-S.

# A Yardstick for Good School Citizenship

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A group of girls tried to force a classmate to transfer to another school: they objected to her appearance and her family background. The group followed her home one day, called her names, and shouted insulting remarks—hoping that the tormented girl would leave school. This incident is but one revealing response, among some four thousand, as cited by over one thousand high school pupils in a recent study of good and poor school citizenship.

The school should be recognized as a small community in itself. Within the school environment pupils interact with one another, with teachers, with the principal, and with other school personnel. Among these interactions, many incidents of good and of poor citizenship behavior are going to occur. A study of the incidents reported by pupils may reveal clues to:

1. the values pupils perceive in their conception of school citizenship.
2. the significant behaviors which pupils perceive as good and as poor school citizenship.

Through the insights derived from this study, school personnel can help pupils develop standards of personal conduct which will be both meaningful and acceptable. Since these characteristics have been identified by youth as good or bad, we may hope that they will serve as a realistic basis for standards which the pupils will actually accept as their own.

Recently, the writer made an exploratory

study of school citizenship based upon incidents of good and of poor citizenship behavior in school as reported by a sampling of pupils in grades seven through twelve, inclusive, in selected schools of Florida and South Georgia.<sup>1</sup> A group interview procedure was used to collect data from a population of white, male and female students from twelve schools located in six geographical areas. Five areas are located in Florida, and one area is located in South Georgia. The investigator interviewed three grades in each of the twelve schools.

On the instrument used in this study, the subjects were asked to describe important incidents of good and of poor citizenship behavior that were observed in school or at school related activities.<sup>2</sup> Four thousand one hundred twenty-six usable incidents were acquired from one thousand fourteen pupils. The incidents were classified, inductively, within twelve categories of good and of poor behavior.

After the incidents reported by the pupils were classified into broad categories of good and of poor behavior, sub-groups were created. The incidents reported within each category of good and of poor behavior were classified into sub-categories. A total of ninety-four sub-categories were developed.

For purposes of this discussion, the behavior itself is important, rather than its good or poor aspects; therefore, the statements of behavior are phrased in positive terms. Assuming that if pupils report a given behavior as poor they are sensitive to



what a good behavior in that category should be, this approach is reasonable.

Within each category, the sub-categories were ranked according to frequency of response. To identify the behaviors to which pupils indicate their greater sensitivity, the sub-categories of good and poor behavior, taken together, which appeared at the median or above were accepted as the principal sub-categories of good and poor behavior.<sup>3</sup> An operational account of good school citizenship as perceived by the pupils sampled is presented in the following outline:

#### THE GOOD SCHOOL CITIZEN

- I. Provides assistance to others by:
  - Helping students succeed in school work.
  - Helping students pick up books and other items that fall.
  - Assisting sick or injured students.
  - Orienting strangers to the school.
  - Assisting permanently or temporarily handicapped students in carrying on their activities.
  - Helping students rise to their feet after they fall.
  - Performing chores or running errands for teachers.
  - Preventing injury or saving a life.
  - Helping carry or move things for teachers.
  - Assisting students with the functioning of personal or mechanical equipment.
- II. Shares possessions by:
  - Providing assistance to people who are without food or drink.
  - Allowing others to use equipment.
  - Making donations for charitable purposes.
  - Providing clothing to others.
  - Giving students a ride in one's car.
- III. Acts courteously by:
  - Behaving respectfully towards teachers.
  - Apologizing for causing an accident.
  - Allowing others to "go first."
  - Providing a seat for others.
- Refusing to break into the lunch line and by preventing others from doing so.
- Opening and holding the door for others.
- Behaving properly as a host and as a guest.
- Apologizing for one's misbehavior.
- Speaking politely to others.
- IV. Shows respect for the worth and dignity of individuals by:
  - Refraining from or preventing the ridicule of others.
  - Helping bring new students into the group.
  - Allowing others to participate in activities.
  - Refraining from or by preventing the ridicule of teachers.
- V. Shows respect for the physical well-being of others by:
  - Preventing or refraining from fighting, hitting, or kicking.
  - Preventing students from playing pranks or by refusing to take part in such pranks.
  - Refraining from or by preventing pupils from throwing objects at people.
  - Refraining from bullying younger students and by preventing others from doing so.
  - Preventing or refraining from rowdy behavior.
- VI. Shows sportsmanship by:
  - Being a good winner or a loser.
  - Being courteous towards opponents.
  - Accepting the decisions of officials graciously.
- VII. Is honest by:
  - Respecting the ownership of the property of others.
  - Refraining from cheating or by preventing others from cheating.
- VIII. Cooperates in school activities to improve the functioning of the total school program by:
  - Being quiet, orderly, and attentive in carrying on an activity.

- Showing interest and by participating in making a voluntary activity a success.
- Working hard in studies and by encouraging others to do so.
- Assuming leadership in maintaining quiet, orderly behavior and in continuing the work or activity under progress.
- Being quiet, orderly, and attentive to work in the absence of the regular teacher.
- Performing one's regular, assigned, or assumed school duties responsibly and well.
- IX. Shows respect for public and private property by:
  - Caring for the general tidiness of the school, the classrooms, and the campus.
  - Refraining from defacing school property or by removing marks from defaced school property.
  - Caring for private property.
  - Refraining from mutilating or by helping improve the appearance and the functioning of the school, the plant, and equipment.
- X. Obeys rules, regulations, and customs by:
  - Refraining from smoking in the school building or on the school grounds.
  - Obedying the instructions of persons who have authority.
  - Obedying traffic regulations outside of school.
  - Being aware of the need for proper traffic procedure within the school.
- XI. Is patriotic by:
  - Showing respect for the flag.
- XII. Is virtuous by:
  - Showing kindness to animals.
  - Refraining from or by attempting to discourage the use of vulgar language.
  - Refraining from drinking intoxicating beverages.

The students sampled in the present study reported incidents of behavior which

emerged from the problem situations encountered in the school environment. They perceived these behaviors as good and poor school citizenship. The classification of these incidents into broad categories affords some insight into the social values which pupils perceive in the concept "School citizenship." The classification of incidents into sub-categories indicates what pupils perceive to be desirable citizenship behavior in school. How may these insights be used to help improve the social behavior of children in school?

The problem situations encountered daily in the school environment may be viewed as laboratory experiences which provide the materials of instruction for improving the social behavior of children. However, to facilitate social learning it is important that the standards of desired behavior be both meaningful and acceptable to pupils. The values pupils perceive as significant in their concept of school citizenship and the operational account of the specific behaviors they report as desirable provide some insight into the behaviors which the pupils sampled may accept as standards for their own conduct in the respective secondary schools. Many of the behaviors are applicable in the elementary school environment and may be meaningful and acceptable to younger children.

The operational account of desirable school citizenship as perceived by pupils, which was presented above, is not intended as a definitive statement of the behaviors that the perfect school citizen exhibits. Rather, it represents a partial list of meaningful behaviors which pupils may accept as necessary for facilitating the process of living and learning together in school.

Instructional personnel may use this list as one source of information in planning cooperatively with children the objectives of school citizenship and the corresponding behaviors necessary for easing the tensions which arise in the classroom and in the school. Certain of the behaviors can be rejected, and others may be added. The list may be used for similar purposes on a school-wide basis through the cooperative planning

of instructional personnel, the student council or other group representative of the student body, the principal, non-instructional personnel, and interested parents. A checklist could be based upon the traits identified which might serve as an instrument for helping evaluate good citizenship in any classroom or school.

<sup>1</sup> Morris G. Sica, "A Classification and Analysis of Incidents of Good and of Poor School Citizenship, Together with the Reasons Therefore, as Reported by Secondary School Pupils and by Instructional Personnel in Twelve Schools of Florida and South Georgia" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, School of Education, Florida State University), 1956.

<sup>2</sup> This is a modification of a procedure for gathering data developed by John C. Flanagan who presents a detailed discussion of the technique in his article "The Critical Incident Technique" *Psychological Bulletin*, LI (July, 1954), 327-358.

<sup>3</sup> A detailed description of this procedure is given in Sica, op. cit., pp. 73-75.

## History as Humanism

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Humanism is ordinarily defined as the intellectual movement that developed during the Renaissance having its origins in the classic works of Greece and Rome and emerging in "the re-discovery of learning." Irrespective of its precise historic roots, it is assumed that humanism meant much for mankind, first of all in Europe and subsequently in those cultures born of European civilization.

In the re-emphasis upon classical learning came a new attitude toward the individual. Ancient times, particularly centering in Athens and Rome of the republican period, at least among the *citizens* reflected greater concern for the dignity of the person than the impersonal-collectivism which was characteristic of the later feudal period.

Colleges and universities of modern America are lending impetus to the humanistic spirit in the Humanities programs which have increasingly formed the core of curricula in the liberal arts. The inevitable consequence has been new concern for the real classics of literature. Another way of saying it is that Robert M. Hutchins may have "lost" the technical phases of his battle for a new kind of higher learning at the University of Chicago, but he and his supporters have won if we are to judge from the greater

stress upon the humanities in liberal higher education.

Comparatively speaking it is seldom that prose emanating from historians has been accurately referred to as *classical*. There aren't many Thucydides, Plutarchs or Livys. Yet, at the risk of posing a new thought which has little foundation in precedent, I make so bold as to suggest that History itself, as an intellectual discipline, may with justification be classed as humanistic.

There is a qualification to such a broad generalization as the foregoing. It is: it depends on *what kind* of historical writing one refers to. More than one chronicler, past and present, has been mis-named "historian." But in a sense it might be possible to classify strictly factual historical writing as "humanistic" inasmuch as history is about people, about humanity.

To me, Plutarch is the finest example of those whose writings may be categorized under "history as humanism." Although he was for his day apparently accurate, Plutarch was never primarily concerned with the mere facts, names and dates of history. It is well known that for centuries his *Lives* has stimulated readers to profound thinking with respect to the great figures of yesterday



and, if we will let our imaginations draw comparisons, of today.

Insofar as human motives and actions stem from the same psychological base which we call "human nature," it is worth noting that the serious reader of Plutarch will, if he chooses, be rewarded by having a good look at himself, his personality, its strengths and weaknesses. The "Introductory Note" of one of the volumes of the *Lives* says: "The ruling passion of Plutarch's life was ethical."<sup>1</sup> He has shown us insights into human motives! He was never satisfied to simply portray, along with the circumstances of the times, the facts of a man's life.

Were he living today, there is reason to believe that Plutarch would scoff at those teachers of history whom one might class as "particularists." A reading of the *Lives* can only convince us that Plutarch would scorn those who, teaching history, go no further than the chronicling of incidental facts. It also seems that Plutarch would have ridicule for the writers and teachers of history who are afraid of the syntheses, the broad generalizations about historical persons of import.

This is quite different from supposing that the synthesis is pertinent in and of itself. There was a superficial de-bunking of personalities which became quite popular during the 1920's when many teachers, especially in the colleges, believed themselves to be erudite and competent critics when, for example, they had portrayed George Washington as an unseemly character in his personal life. This was supposed to be pretty smart stuff.

The generalizations of Plutarch went deep. They probed to the heart of the individual. The great and the near-great never cowed him. He showed the weaknesses of personality which plagued them all. At the same time, he was willing to give them the benefit of the doubt. He brought forth those qualities which made them great along with the trivial, negative characteristics which made them human. In this sense, Plutarch was one of the *true humanists*.

It is, in like manner, that the teaching of

history may become humanistic. History teachers of the present age, aware that the past lives and that it affects each of us, would do well to take a leaf from Plutarch's writings and apply it to their teaching methods.

It has been so often said: "We learn from history that we learn nothing from history." Since this, alas, seems only too true, it rests as a sad commentary upon the way in which history has been taught. We hope that the time is coming, and indeed it must come if the world is to be saved from blowing itself to bits, when we might more properly say: "We have learned from history that we have learned much from history!"

As a former social studies teacher, I call upon my counterparts in the classrooms of today to teach history as *the most humanistic* of all the subjects in the curriculum. The lives of people who are worth the mention should be taught so that, for our students, they virtually breathe. This isn't to say that we ignore the unseemly and we distort evidence. But let us go beyond that!

Let us seek in the personalities of the great figures of the past those elements which we can hold forth to our students with pride, the pride that stems from our consciousness that we too are of their race. It is trite but true that technological circumstances have changed through the years, but the problems and turmoils of human emotion are infinitely more similar than different as compared with past generations.

If the world at large seems bent upon ignoring the past, there is all the more reason for teachers of history to become imbued with the great thoughts which we are quite free to borrow from the past's profound thinkers and great leaders. Their very greatness is evidence that these men had an identity with the people. *They were humanists*. We are at liberty to use the example of their lives to enrich our own and to lead students to better goals for themselves and for others.

<sup>1</sup> Plutarch's *Lives*, vol. 12. New York: Collier and Sons, 1909, p. 3.

## The Teachers' Page

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### *Reading materials for the "Slow Learner"*

Following is the second part of the Unit on *Being a Wise Consumer*. The first part appeared in the preceding issue.

#### *How Advertising Influences Buying*

Modern advertising is something that came as a result of the Industrial Revolution. You may have heard of the Industrial Revolution before. It is a name given to a change in the manufacture or the making of goods. Before the Industrial Revolution, shoes, clothing, furniture, wagons, and other articles were made by hand. As a result of the Industrial Revolution, machines began to be used in the making of goods.

The use of machines made possible what is called *mass production*. This means the making or the manufacture of goods in very great amounts. New and different kinds of goods also resulted. As time passed, discoveries in science brought about more changes in the making of goods. They also brought about changes in the way people lived. Fewer people stayed on the farms and more people moved into cities. The numbers of schools increased with more children going to school. Traveling became easier as a result of the train, the automobile, and later the airplane. More people travelled. People did not have to work as hard or as many hours a day as they did before the Industrial Revolution. With more time on their hands and with more people being educated, people read more. Newspapers, magazines, and books increased in number. There came also new forms of entertainment, as the movies, the radio, and television.

All these changes developed new tastes and wants in people. There came also new styles and models, not only in clothes, but in other

things, such as in automobiles, houses, and refrigerators.

Another result of the Industrial Revolution was the development of large business organizations, called corporations. Some corporations today are worth billions of dollars. They employ thousands of workers. One of the new developments in the way corporations did business was in how they went about "selling" what they manufactured. Years ago, a shoemaker would make a pair of shoes when a customer ordered one. A tailor did the same with a suit or a coat. The word *custom-made*, which means made to the order of a customer, is still used today. Some people still have some of their clothes custom-made. On the whole, factories make millions of dollars worth of shoes, clothes, furniture, and other articles, expecting people to buy them. Since two or more corporations may make similar articles, such as tooth paste, soap, radios, and men's suits, the corporations try to attract customers to their products. What the corporations do is "sell" the idea to the customer that their tooth paste, their soap, or their cigarettes are the best on the market. In their "selling" corporations also try to make people develop a want or need for their products. Such selling is called *advertising*. The purpose of advertising is to make people buy.

#### *What the Consumer should Guard against in Advertising*

Advertising can be helpful when it tells people something they do not know about a product. Advertising can be helpful when it acquaints consumers with a new product. But advertising can be harmful when it confuses people as to what to buy. It is harmful when it creates desires and wants in people

beyond their means to fulfill them. It is harmful when it makes people unhappy because they can not afford to buy the advertised products. It is bad when it makes claims for an article which are not true.

The methods used by many advertisers to attract customers often attempt to make use of a person's basic needs, wants, desires, hopes, fears, and resentments. Aspirin, vitamin pills, headache powders, rubbing lotions, reducing tablets, and hundreds of other patent medicines are advertised with an appeal to people's fear of illness, their hope to get well, or their desire to be beautiful. Tooth paste advertisements play upon people's wishes to have healthy and beautiful teeth. Many times the claims made by the advertising product are greatly exaggerated or even false. Not many years ago cigarette manufacturers made untrue claims that their brands prevented coughs and sore throats. Persons who have strong needs to be admired may be influenced by automobile advertisements which claim unusual distinction, "class," power, or prestige for their cars.

No matter what methods are used by advertisers, the consumer cannot escape advertising. It is with him when he rides on the highway, on billboards. It is with him on his way to work when he rides the bus or street car. It is with him when he listens to the radio, watches television, reads a newspaper, or looks through a magazine. Through the power of repetition and appeal to the basic needs mentioned above, the person is made to buy what the advertiser sells. The things to guard against, therefore, are:

1. Do not be taken in by false advertising claims.
2. Do not be swayed by your emotions. Reason things out.
3. Make sure you buy what you really need.
4. Make sure you can afford to pay for what you buy.
5. Be guided in what you buy by the quality of the product as well as style and beauty.

6. Do not be overly influenced by changing styles and fashions.
7. Budget your income.

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1. Bring to class different examples of advertising. Analyze them for their appeal to people's basic needs.
  2. In what ways can advertising be helpful?
  3. In what ways can advertising be harmful?
- 

#### *How Budgeting Can Help in Wise Buying*

No one, except a very small number of people, has enough money to buy all the things he might need or want. Everyone, therefore, must continuously make decisions regarding what things to buy and what things not to buy. One way to use wisely the money one has is to make a *budget*. When a person makes a budget he *figures out* how much money he can spend on various items that he might need. While doing this he bears in mind things that are luxuries and things that are necessities.

For example: every person must live in a house. Whether he buys or rents one, he has to decide how much he can afford. Then he must put away that amount from his monthly earnings. The house must be lighted and heated. Money must also be put away for this expense. A person must eat. Therefore, he has to use some of his earnings for food. Then he must have money for clothes, carfare, insurance, occasional doctor fees and medicines, and for such luxuries as going to the movies now and then, entertaining friends, buying a piece of jewelry, and occasionally giving a gift. Contributions to charities and savings would be other items included in a budget.

The big job in making a budget is in spreading the little money one has over all these things. This means that a person must not *over-spend* on any one item. For example, if a person spends too much money on carfare (by buying an automobile which he can't afford), other items in his budget will suffer. Some people spend too much money



on a house; some on furniture; some on a car; some on fancy clothes; some on having good times. When people do not have a budget, they might buy things without giving consideration to other things they need. Frequently, such persons are influenced by advertising, and by appeals to buy on the installment plan. Sometimes such people overspend, get into debt, and lose what they buy to the finance company.

A wise consumer figures out his budget carefully. He decides how much he will spend on different goods and services. He makes certain that he does not spend too much money on any one item. He then has money left for other things he needs or wants. As a guide in deciding how much money to spend on various items, experts advise that a family should divide their earnings or income as follows:

Rent (including utilities) . . . about	20%
Food . . . . .	" 25%
Clothing . . . . .	" 15%
Other: carfare, insurance, recreation, savings, etc. . .	" 40%

1. Assume that you are married and there are four people in your family. The family income is \$80.00 a week. Make a budget showing how you would divide up the \$80.00 on the various items your family would need.
2. Visit a real estate office and find out the following:
  - a. The meaning of "settlement charges."
  - b. The approximate cost of settlement charges for a \$12,000 house.
  - c. The monthly carrying charges on a \$9,000 mortgage (monthly cost on principal and interest).
  - d. The approximate yearly tax on a \$12,000 new house.
  - e. The approximate yearly tax on a \$12,000 old house.

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*What the Consumer should Know about  
Changing Prices*

One of the problems that the wage earner

has to face is the frequent change in the value of the dollar. A dollar is, of course, always worth 100 cents. What is meant by a change in the value of the dollar refers to what can be purchased by a dollar. When the prices of goods and services change so that you can buy less for a dollar, it is known as *inflation*. When prices change so that you can buy more for a dollar, it is called *deflation*. When deflation continues over a long period of time, business people lose money, and then workers may lose their jobs. A depression is said to exist then. There is not much a person can do by himself to prevent deflation or a depression. What one can do is to save some of his money in a bank, or in government bonds and use that money if he loses his job.

During inflation or rising prices, unless earnings also become larger, the average person may find it difficult to buy all the things which he normally buys. Using the budget system can be of help. Wise shopping can also be helpful. People who are most hurt by inflation are those whose salaries remain unchanged, or those who are no longer working, and live on a pension or on social security income. It is therefore wise, if possible, for a person to save or invest part of his earnings when he is working, for future use.

. . . . .

*Developing Acceptable Values to Live By*

The American Vocational Association held its 51st Annual Convention last August (5-9) in Philadelphia, Penna. Among its many meetings two were devoted to the teaching of academic subjects in vocational schools. The principal speaker at one of these meetings was Charles M. Cooper, Director of Engineering Research, E. I. Dupont Company, Wilmington, Delaware. Mr. Cooper based his talk on a check list of attributes his personnel office uses in hiring and evaluating employees. With respect to education, Mr. Cooper asked the audience and himself what kind of educational experiences would lead to the development of a competent

adult—one who would possess the following traits:

Knowledge  
Creativeness  
Analytical Ability  
Initiative and Resourcefulness  
Quantity of Production  
Quality of Work  
Ability to Speak Clearly  
Ability to Write Clearly  
Judgment and Common Sense  
Cooperation  
Open-Mindedness  
Reliability  
Leadership

One of the interrogators at the meeting raised the question concerning the role of native ability in the acquisition of the above traits. The discussion which followed seemed to conclude that native ability was significant only in affecting the relative strength of these attributes. Given the proper learning experiences all children can be expected to acquire knowledge, develop creativity, initiative and resourcefulness, learn to think analytically, and so on, consistent with their abilities. There was general agreement also that there is no one subject or group of subjects which are designed specifically to teach these attributes of character and personality. They come about as by-products of learning

—learning at home and at school, and in the world at large.

Mr. Cooper, in his address, stressed the point that "Effective use of knowledge is at least as important as knowledge itself" and that "working habits are the tools by which knowledge is put to effective use." Also, that one of the major obstacles to effective use of knowledge, or the effective application of curiosity, which results in creative thinking, is lack of confidence. Developing self-confidence is therefore another function of education.

The questions raised or implied but not answered with respect to this whole problem were:

1. What are the kinds of learning experiences that the schools can provide which would lead to the acquisition of the aforementioned traits?
2. What areas of knowledge should be stressed on the secondary school level?
3. Shall standards of mastery of subject matter and of skills be established and maintained?
4. How can the training at home and the conditioning influences in the world-at-large — if they foster values in conflict with those taught in the school — be counteracted in the school?

## Visual and Other Aids

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### FREE MATERIALS

**NATO—Shield of Freedom.** One of a series of booklets on the work of the North Atlantic Treaty organizations. Free. American Council on Nato, Inc., 22 E. 67 St., New York, N. Y. The following are also available: *The Spirit of The Atlantic Alliance*, *The Role of the School in the Atlantic Community*, *The North Atlantic Treaty Organization*, *Nato Letter*; Wall Map, showing the Nato area, size 13 by 17 in.; *Nato Means Peace*.

A two-color poster, 18 by 24 in. Free. UNESCO, Dept. of State.

A booklet entitled "How Children Learn About Human Rights."

A Human Rights Day flyer designed to be used in connection with observances.

A "Wall chart" presentation—a comparison of sections of the Universal Declaration with our American documents to illustrate the similarities in concept and wording.

A "fact sheet" outlining the significance of

the Universal Declaration and some background on the Day.

A Guide Book for Community leaders which enumerates a number of steps for promoting an effective observance and utilization of community resources.

All this material is available from Unesco, Dept. of State, Washington, D. C.

*Road Maps of Industry.* Single copies of charts available free from Natl. Industrial Conference Bd., 460 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. The last four charts are very colorful presentations of: 1. World Production of Selected Materials; 2. Population Projections, by States; 3. Business Populations, 1946-56; 4. Annual Family Income in U. S., 1950, 1954, 1956.

#### FILMS

*Around This Table.* 17 min. B&W. Loan. American Council on Nato, 22 E. 67 St., New York 21, N. Y.

Concerns the civilian side of NATO and the work of the North Atlantic Council.

*Alliance For Peace.* 23 min. B&W. Loan. American Council on NATO.

Describes the origins and development of NATO as a military and political alliance.

*Family Life.* 20 min. B&W. Sale/rental. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.

Stresses the sharing of tasks and pleasures within the family.

*Homes.* 20 min. B&W. Sale/rental. United World Films.

Shows the many kinds of homes in many places explaining the adaptation of materials and structures to the environment and needs of our community.

*School Children.* 20 min. Sale/rental. United World Films.

Shows us different kinds of schools and varying school activities throughout the world, with differing teaching materials and methods.

*Children at Work and Play.* 20 min. Sale/rental. United World Films.

Depicts children sharing family chores and playing similar games in many lands.

*Arab Village.* 10 min. Color. Sale/rental. Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., New York.

Shows how modern advances affect small villages in undeveloped areas (Lebanon). Reveals how people can work together to achieve changes.

*Sui.* 26 min. Color. Free loan. Association Films, 347 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Depicts the laying of a 348 mile gas pipe line in Pakistan. Reveals how an underdeveloped area may be made more fertile, and productive.

*The Dynamic Southeast.* 18 min. Free loan. United World Films, Inc.

Depicts the dynamic spirit of this area exemplified by its tremendous industrial expansion, the prosperous growth of agriculture through scientific management, plus the development of the regions' many natural resources.

*What We Face in Southern Asia.* 42 min. United World Films, Inc.

Film is a result of Justice William O. Douglas' tour of the South Pacific. He explains the political and economic problems of southern Asia and their significance to the U. S. A.

#### FILMSTRIPS

"Epic of Man" series. Color. Sale. Each film strip \$6.00. *Life* Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

*Growth of Society.* 59 fr.

We see how man has accommodated himself to his new environment.

*The Discovery of Agriculture.* 55 fr.

Traces the course of human history from a rural to an urban existence, showing man's innovations of trade and commerce.

*Neolithic Folk Today.* 65 fr.

Depicts the towering villages and the bleak mountains and desert environment of the Berbers living in the Atlas mountains of North Africa.

*The Coming of Civilization.* 79 fr.

As Neolithic barbarism ended about 5000 years ago, great cities arose on the banks of Middle Eastern rivers. The



greatest of these were the cities of Sumer, a land situated between the Tigris and Euphrates in Mesopotamia. Film shows the early products of science and technology . . . the wheel, the arch, writing, and the making of bronze.

*Sumer—The First Great Civilization*. 60 fr.

Film shows what the Sumerian wore; how they amused themselves; how they conducted their religious ceremonies; and also what their houses, temples, and war chariots looked like—for war was one of the by-products of their civilization.

*Keystones of European Unity*. 53 fr. B&W. Sale. Office of Educ. Activities, 229 W. 43 St., New York, N. Y.

Rich in background, this filmstrip looks back at the unity of conquest in Roman times or the Napoleonic era, and the heritage of centuries of strife and fragmentation, intense nationalism, conflicting ways of life.

*North American Partners: "U. S., Canada, Mexico."* 56 fr. B&W. Sale. *The N. Y. Times*.

Filmstrip brings together a story that has not been marked by spectacular headlines, but is a story of great significance—the increasing maturity and interdependence of the North American partnership, and the importance of these ties for freedom and defense.

#### RECORDINGS

*The Living Constitution of The U. S.* 33-1/3 rpm. Long play. Sale. \$5.00. Kaydan Records, 12754 Ventura Blvd., Studio City, California.

A dramatic and effective presentation of the Constitution. It utilizes choral speaking, musical background, and other dramatic techniques, and condenses the most important portions of the text of the Constitution into 37 minutes.

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

*Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.*

*Marriage: Past and Present, a Debate Between Robert Briffault and Bronislaw Malinowski*. Edited with an Introduction by M. F. Ashley Montagu. Boston: Porter Sargent Publisher, c. 1956. Pp. 90. Cloth \$2.50; paper \$1.50.

This is a reprint of a series of six broadcasts in 1931 over the British Broadcasting Corporation by two world famous anthropologists. The broadcasts occurred at a time when such radical experiments in the family as those of the Russian Revolution made many people fear the permanent destruction of the family and others seek support for some brand of current communal theory in supposed communal origins of the institution. The basic issues debated revolve around Briffault's claim that the family began as a maternal clan based on group marriage and

joint parenthood, an apology for communal experimentation if not for natural impermanence, and Malinowski's claim that the individual family has always existed and always will, albeit he stretched the term to include polygamy as a series of individual marriages. To Malinowski, the family is categorically a necessity for human survival, and marriage an essential adjunct to it.

The editor, student of Malinowski and acquaintance of Briffault, supplies an introduction and footnotes. He details the origin of the debate as well as the character of the protagonists. Bitter disagreement caused the cancellation of the seventh and final broadcast in the series as planned, even after some two dozen drafts. Ashley Montagu is clearly on the side of Malinowski, describing him as a scientific anthropologist, whom the inter-

vening years have supported (see the return of Russia to the "bourgeois" conception of the family and the liberalizing of divorce and contraception in Italy), in contrast to Briffault, the special pleader.

The printing of the book leaves something to be desired, and probably only anthropologists and specialized students of the family will follow the argument with much ease or interest.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College  
Frederick, Maryland

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*Other People's Children.* By Anna Veters Levy. New York: The Ronald Press Company, c. 1956. Pp. vii, 287. \$3.75.

From the cases of some 30,000 boys and girls who, because of depredations, abuse, neglect, or want, appeared before her in her eight years on the juvenile court in New Orleans, Judge Levy selects fourteen for this absorbing, sympathetic, and disturbing book. They present a picture of varied character among the children, poignant longings and pathetic struggles no less than indifference and cruelty of parents, "respectable" citizens and community situations that exploit and stunt children, inadequacies of institutions that pass for detention homes and parole systems, philosophies and procedural limitations of juvenile courts. But always the stories are personalized; in Judge Levy's telling, they become human dramas, not only of delinquent children, but also of policemen, detention home guards, foster parents, the German war bride of a light-skinned Negro, call house madams, dope pushers — not to say of Judge Levy herself. Only in an epilogue does she generalize appreciably on the role of the juvenile court, and make a plea for its understanding and extension. She reports from travels at home and abroad finding not a single juvenile court with staff and facilities to accomplish the best possible results.

The stories are told with such dramatic

effect that often a certain feeling of unreality results. It is a little surprising, too, to see an author obviously of such advanced views on delinquency still using the term "orphan asylum," and also giving credence to the idea of a sort of mystical bond between children and their natural parents that presumably is thought to inhere in blood. The book will be excellent supplementary reading for those who already know the main outlines of juvenile delinquency as a social problem and the character of the juvenile court.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College  
Frederick, Maryland

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*The Chance Character of Human Existence.* By John Brill. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 150. \$3.75.

In this brief, but very repetitious, book Mr. Brill offers us "the source for a modern guiding philosophy, superior to all previous philosophies and religions" (p. 144) — namely, chance. Darwin's theory of evolution and certain recent developments in subatomic physics seem to Mr. Brill to establish that "chance is the prime cause for all phenomena" (p. 133). The philosophy derived from this source involves "the reduction of all things to matter and its motion" (p. 52) or, ultimately, to "contact of electrical charges" (p. 36). Accordingly, "human thought is a physical process . . . a reaction to a physical fact" (pp. 26-27), and from this it is inferred that there is no "creative" element in human thinking: for example, all scientific discoveries are the result of purely accidental observations. Furthermore, man is essentially self-centered, "a fighting unit struggling for his own existence" (p. 105). If he sometimes displays sympathy and benevolence "actually he is using these noble attributes to further his own end" (p. 105). For a social and political theory we are given a simple variety of nineteenth-century social Darwinism.

Little evidence is supplied for these gen-

eralizations. Despite the author's reverence for science, he makes virtually no effort to take account of twentieth-century biology, psychology, anthropology, or sociology. Though philosophical ideas of the sort he puts forward have appeared before and have been thoroughly debated, he seems unaware of most of the issues that have been raised. Oddly enough, chance, in the sense of indeterminacy or unpredictability, has little to do with Mr. Brill's other doctrines. He himself sounds the theme of determinacy again and again. His principal dogma is that there is an "inexorable evolutionary process that determines the development of all things [and which] is entirely subject to physical laws as is everything in the universe" (p. 131). What he seems most anxious to convey by his use of the notion of chance is merely the denial that there is anything personal or purposeful about "the forces of nature."

W. E. SCHLARETZKI

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

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*Today's Economics.* By Goodman and Moore.  
Boston: Ginn & Company, 1957. Pp. vi,  
632. \$3.96.

*Today's Economics* is the fulfillment of a great need in the curriculum of the high school program of social studies. Too often courses in economics have been slighted by being offered as a single unit in a broad comprehensive social studies course. In many secondary schools a course in economics does not exist, the priority being given to history, government and social living.

The authors realized the gravity of this situation and have written an excellent book dealing with every important phase of the economic life of the average American. The book is divided into nine units that are covered adequately in thirty-one chapters. Accompanying each chapter are excellent charts, graphs, cartoons, drawings and photographs.

Frequent references are made to the historical development of our economy and an

entire section deals with the functions of local, state and federal government and their effect on the economy. The high cost of government is defended and upheld in time of war. On the other hand, the authors assert their opinion that during peacetime and years of full production, it is anticipated "that the budget will be gradually balanced and a gradual reduction of the national debt will be made possible."

This textbook offers a practical approach to the study of economics. The authors do not include separate chapters on economic theory nor is a comparison made of the differences between the free enterprise system of the capitalistic countries and the collectivism of the Iron Curtain countries. This oversight is regrettable for certainly the economic determinism of the Communists to destroy the system of free enterprise is a very grave problem and one that deserves considerable study.

Despite the shortcomings mentioned above, Mr. Goodman and Mr. Moore have rendered a valuable service in offering a detailed, comprehensive and readable text, one that should be on the shelves of every high school bookroom.

WILLIAM HUNTER SHANNON

Catonsville High School  
Catonsville, Maryland

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*Dakota Territory 1861-1889 — A Study of Frontier Politics.* By Howard Roberts Lamar. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1956. Pp. 304. \$4.50.

It was not so much the pressure of the pioneer farmers upon the heels of a declining fur trade as it was the interests of professional politicians, of competing groups of land speculators and railroad builders that afforded the impetus to the settlement of the Dakotas. In this significant study which originated as a doctoral thesis, Mr. Lamar shows that the evolution of Dakota Territory reflects the political corruption and bankruptcy of principles that characterized the national stage in the period between the Civil War and the Progressive Revolt. The



Territory became the prey of speculative politicians and rings of spoilsmen and promoters, who were bent solely on their own self-interest. They got the important offices, controlled the legislatures, resorted to bribery and seemingly stopped at nothing in the interest of personal gain. The leading politicians were for the most part connected with the national government and its patronage. The most remote thought of these leaders was to further the well-being of the settlers. There was no concern for laying the foundations of democratic principles as against the building of personal fortunes.

Throughout the territorial period, politics reflected various sectional interests. In the 1860's the principal rivalry was between the Yankton and Sioux Falls speculators, each group hoping that its center would become the territorial capital as well as an important railroad town. Yankton became the capital. By the 1870's there were two new centers of population that challenged the leadership of the southeast. These were the Black Hills section in the west, which became a magnet of settlement with the discovery of gold, and northern Dakota. To the French-Canadian settlements of the Red River Valley in the northeast were now added the rapidly growing settlements on the Missouri, which came after the arrival of the Northern Pacific at Bismarck in 1874. The panic of 1873 caused the road to recoup its fortunes by planting settlers on its lands. Thousands of pioneers were attracted by the prospects of "bonanza farming" of number one hard wheat. In 1883 the territorial capital was moved to Bismarck.

The settlement of western and northern Dakota brought a new balance of power to worry the politicians. It eventually led to a movement for separate statehood in the north and south. This struggle was characterized by all the political finagling and chicanery that had marked the early territorial battles. The Dakotas had to wait until 1889, when they were admitted to the Union coupled with Montana and Washington.

By 1889 farm unrest, expressed in the

form of the great Farmers' Alliance, was smouldering throughout the middle west. But the radical demands of the agrarians had nothing in common with the statehood movement. The latter was concerned solely with the control of the new state — not with political and economic reform. But the farmers were not long in pressing their demands through the Alliance which afforded them their first means of political expression.

One of the big lessons of this study is that the uncertainties concerning the agricultural future of the plains region necessitated the government's assuming a primary role in economic development. This fostered the emergence of a political and economic oligarchy which, despite internal disagreements, never lost sight of the concept that the role of the government in the economic development of the territory was a primary one to enable the inhabitants (and the spoilsmen) to survive and profit. This likewise afforded the rationale for the later Non-Partisan League and at least some parts of the concept of the welfare state.

W. M. GEWEHR

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

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*The World in the Twentieth Century.* By Geoffrey Bruun. Third Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957. Pp. xxii, 818. \$6.75.

Professor Bruun's book deserved a third edition. Although there have been no drastic revisions, this edition is still welcome. The most important change has been the addition of a nineteen page epilogue. Entitled "Problems of Today and Tomorrow," it covers events between 1952 and 1956. It is a skilful, objective, and somewhat simplified discussion emphasizing the problems of economics, imperialism, and the "cold war." As with the rest of the book, Bruun's essential interest in people makes this section above average.

Although minor corrections have been made in this edition, the work has not been thoroughly revised. For example, in Part X "The Contemporary World," the data on the

United States is mostly from the 1940's. Our students, who were babies then, will hardly think this contemporary. Another example, some of the "Aids for Additional Study" cite works of which there are later editions. Perhaps if the work is revised, and I suggest the revision be made after the 1960 census, Professor Bruun will clear up these minor problems.

The level at which the book is written suits it for use with good students at the senior high school level. It could find employment as a text in a social problems, social studies, or social science course that takes a broad view of the world. For the teacher who needs, either for himself or his students a clear well-written text, this should prove valuable.

PETER R. SENN

Wright Junior College  
Chicago, Illinois

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*Conquest of the American Mind: Comments on Collectivism in Education.* By Felix Wittmer. Boston: Meador Publishing Company, 1956. Pp. 352. Index. \$5.00.

Dr. Wittmer is a German-born educator who received his formal training in European schools and taught at New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair from 1934 to 1951. The present collection of his articles and essays comprises a diffusive attack upon individuals, processes, and agencies of American education, both formal and informal. The first two chapters, "Progressive Education" and "On the Abolition of Grades," raise questions which seem pertinent to any serious critique on current educational practice. Thereafter the broad sweep of Dr. Wittmer's broom is suggested by chapter headings ranging from "Communist Tactics in the Lecture Hall" (Ch. V) and "The Strange Case of Anna Louise Strong" (Ch. VIII) to "The Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences — A Major Source of Marxian Subversion" (Ch. XXXI) and "The Columbia Encyclopedia, Pioneer of Marxian Slavery" (Ch. XXXII).

A staunch defender of a theory of political economy which flourished in the United States a hundred years ago, the author is in the same degree unsympathetic with the modern trend toward centralization and with twentieth century experiments in the dissociation of the precepts of social and political democracy from those of unregulated capitalistic enterprise. His quarrel with American education arises at each point of what he construes as deviation from a position embracing complete rejection of federal intervention in the economy. His creed is concisely stated on p. 125: "Just as in our moral life we will eventually be punished if we do not abide by the simple tenets of the Ten Commandments, we suffer deterioration and death politically and economically if we deviate from the fundamentals of the Constitution (which limits government), and the laws of the free market economy."

In accordance with a familiar formula, Dr. Wittmer classifies many people whose views on social theory, historical interpretation, domestic and foreign policy, and/or educational philosophy are at variance with his own. They are either pro-Communist or they are well-intentioned individuals who do not understand the inevitable consequences of their opinions. Into the latter category, for example, fall the representatives of industry and finance who, as members of the Committee for Economic Development, have associated themselves with "New Deal economists." For this lamentable lapse from sound doctrine there is an explanation. "It is of course one thing to be a successful businessman, and quite another to understand the roots of business success and the consequences of artificial business stimuli." (pp. 123-130) Some readers may feel, as this one does, that something more can be said for the intelligence of successful businessmen. The same reservation may be extended to appraisals of the mental endowment, scholarship, and judgment of many prominent educators, ministers, social scientists, scientists, historians, publicists, and government

officials of the past three decades who incur the author's displeasure.

Most of the articles of this book have been published elsewhere during the past six years. But, as the author points out in his preface and in Chapter XXIX, they have appeared in "conservative" magazines that are not listed in the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*. Thus it may be that the collection will be welcomed by students who have been interested in what has been termed the New American Right. Dr. Wittmer believes that his articles "substantiate the claim that a pattern of collectivist subversion has definitely been established in America's intellectual life, especially in the fields of literature and education." (p. 9) The reviewer disagrees.

EARL S. BEARD

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

*Taboo*. By Franz Steiner. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 152. \$4.75.

Ever since Captain Cook discovered the phenomenon of "taboo" in Polynesia nearly 200 years ago, scholars have been fascinated by it and have been trying to explain it; thus Robertson Smity, Frazer, Freud, Levy-Bruhl, Van Gennep, Radcliffe-Brown and others have approached the subject at some length. But one of these theories advanced so far has more than a limited validity, claims Steiner's scrutiny, stressing that different culture patterns have different sorts of "danger behavior." "Taboo gives notice that danger lies hot in the whole situation, but only in certain specified actions concerning it" (pp. 146-7).

In a typical European traditional scholarly manner, Steiner, displaying all the paraphernalia of erudition, has made here a definite contribution to social anthropology by summarizing all significant evidence written about taboo and by subjecting it to a theoretical evaluation.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

*American Culture: An Analysis of Its Development and Present Characteristics*. By Saxon Graham. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. Pp. xiii, 571. \$6.50.

This book is primarily a descriptive analysis of American Society. It summarizes and brings together in one place research findings in the Social Sciences helpful in acquiring increased awareness and understanding of American social organization and culture. This material is presented in a Sociological-Anthropological frame of reference. While most of the material is taken from the immediate scene, there are some cross-cultural comparisons and discussions tracing the historical roots of our major institutions and value systems.

There are three introductory chapters devoted to a discussion of the scientific method and its relation to the social sciences and a presentation of Anthropological and Sociological concepts and definitions to be used as "tools" or frames of reference in interpreting the information presented later in the book.

With Chapter four the main organization of the book comes into focus. After a consideration of Immigration, Population growth and Demographic processes (rural-urban differences and characteristics of urban growth), there is a treatment of the main value systems of America. Subsequently, most of the book deals with the various social institutions that provide structural integration for our society, including the Family, the Capitalistic-Industrial Economic system, the Political-Government organization, and the Religious, Educational and Recreational Institutions. The final group of Chapters deal with Social Welfare problems, Differential Class behavior patterns, Minority problems and Social Change (concluding chapter) in America.

This book is one of the best of a number of similar books that have recently appeared describing American society within a Sociological frame of reference. Its most unique chapter deals with "The Beliefs and Values of the American People" and this chapter is



in itself an excellent outside reading selection for any course in the area of Social Science. Many students may find the book too long and some of the discussions too involved. The size of the book could have been reduced had there been less discussion (leaving that to the classroom and the instructor) and more summary. This point, however, is more a suggestion of possible time limitations affecting the reader than a negative reflection upon the book, as the discussions in the book, especially those on the position of women in American society, are excellent.

WILLIAM S. FELTON

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

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*Seventy Years of Life and Labor: An Autobiography.* By Samuel Gompers. Revised and edited by Philip Taft and John A. Sessions. With a foreword by George Meany. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1957. Pp. 334. \$5.00.

Samuel Gompers' *Autobiography* was originally published in 1925 in two volumes. It was reissued in one volume in 1943. In its original form, the work is an important contribution. What we have here is a hash, of little value either for the teacher, who should go to the original, or for the student, who deserves to be taught about American labor from a better source.

The present edition has substituted a foreword by George Meany for Gompers' own. The two page introduction by Matthew Woll in the one-volume edition has been replaced by thirty unsigned pages. The text has been compressed from 47 to 25 chapters. Probably these changes are supposed to make the work more readable, but, taken all together, they add nothing to the original and seriously detract from parts of it.

The "long interpretative introduction" is both a summary statement and a defense of some of the important elements of Gompers' trade union philosophy. It is badly written, being both superficial and repetitious. The general tone is that Gompers is to be given credit for what might be called "good," and

that he was either powerless or he reflected the views of other labor leaders about the "bad."

The main body of the work has been shortened by the elimination of the dedication, all pictures, tables of analytical contents, book and chapter pages, and perhaps half of the text. These omissions are not in themselves objectionable. When they result in bringing into the text characters to whom we have not been previously introduced; in confusing the reader by mixing up verb tenses as a result of putting material from two paragraphs into one; and, generally, in cutting out the human interest side of Gompers' personality, then the editing has been of little value.

The editorial faults extend even to the index. Of three entries checked, one was in error.

PETER R. SENN

Wright Junior College  
Chicago, Illinois

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*Solovyev.* By Egbert Munzer. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. vi, 154. \$4.75.

This little book was among unpublished papers left by the late Egbert Munzer, a German born professor of Sociology and Statistics at Laval University. Shortly before his death he completed this study of Solovyev, whom he regarded as Russia's greatest philosopher and of special significance and importance for our time. Modern Orthodox religious philosophers consider Solovyev the first Russian "sophiologist"; Catholic thinkers call him "the father of Russian Catholicism," although neither title can be applied strictly. At any rate, the basic theme of this thinker was that only Christianity will ultimately unite East and West. In this respect, Munzer's analysis is a definite contribution to our growing understanding of East-West relationships in the light of the Christian faith.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

*The Economic Factors In The Growth Of Russia.* By Nicholas L. Fr.-Chirovsky. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. 177. \$3.75.

In this book, the author develops the thesis that present-day Soviet imperialism is nothing new, but rather represents a continuation of a calculated system of economic expansion and exploitation of subject peoples that goes back in Russian history for 700 years or more.

While this may be a valid historical view, the effectiveness of Mr. Fr.-Chirovsky's work is partially negated because of the encompassing hatred of all things Russian which comes through on almost every page. Century by century, Russia is portrayed as consisting exclusively of primitive, bestial, destructive barbarians bent only on pursuing their "disgusting" policies of subjugation and exploitation. In Mr. Fr.-Chirovsky's view, Russia is *always* the aggressor and scant mention is made of the fact that the internal weakness of Russia over the centuries invited invasions of *Russia* at one time or another in history by the Mongols, the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Swedes, the French under Napoleon, the Allies after World War I and Germany under Hitler.

In the constant stress on Russian "primitivism" and brutality, no credit is given to the economic and social reforms (while admittedly too little, too late) under Alexander II nor the industrial progress and financial reform accomplished during the time of Alexander III and his great minister Count Witte. Certainly in the history of any great power—particularly in the political and economic areas—raw self-interest can be readily discerned but this hardly constitutes justification for the author's unbalanced polemic against all things Russian and his ignoring of *all elements* of moderation and reform in Russian history. Mr. Fr.-Chirovsky's effort is similar to the writing of an economic history of the United States confined exclusively to the exploitation of the American Indian by the white settlers. In

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economic history little real insight can be gained by concentrating on the explanatory technique of angels and devils.

In the course of pursuing his unilateral path, Mr. Fr.-Chirovsky offers some shockingly casual value judgments for which he offers little or no evidence. Typical is his statement that Franklin Roosevelt opened the way to a resumption of the Russian imperialist drive on American soil (temporarily stymied since the sale of Alaska to the United States in 1867) with the recognition of the Soviet Union by the United States in 1933 which made possible an intensive Communist infiltration of this country.

Within the limitations outlined above, *The Economic Factors In The Growth Of Russia* contains much worthwhile material on economic motivation of Russian policy. The notes at the end of the chapters are of great value.

In the preface, the author rather appealingly writes of his hope that this book will be of value to his new country (the United States). Certainly it is obvious that this is a time for hard and clear thinking about Russia past and present. At the risk of being labeled as a muddle-headed liberal, this reviewer can only conclude that Mr. Fr.-Chirovsky has failed in his effort to give us valuable insight into the incredibly complex problems posed to the free world by the nature of the Soviet Union.

FRANK A. SCHOLFIELD  
State University Teachers College  
Oswego, N. Y.

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*The History of Germany: From the Reformation to the Present Day.* By Minna R. Falk. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. x, 438. \$6.00.

Dr. Falk's preface says, "Emphasis has been placed on political and economic factors . . . rather than the picture of history and musical pre-1870 Germanies." This is a commendable aim, for text writers generally flounder when they attempt cultural history. However actually only nine pages are concentrated on economic history and these en-

tirely on one period. This volume, then, treats political history. It begins detailed treatment with Luther, covers the period to 1848 in 130 pages, and takes the reader to 1914 in 145 more. This is good balance, but having only ten pages, with the most scattered information, on the Middle Ages, is insufficient for a nation which long preserved a substantial medieval heritage.

Dr. Falk writes history in casual, almost folksy way, a shade above journalese. Her interest is caught by well-known events and the individuals at the top of the pile. The reader is not bothered with the German people, nor with problems or analysis. There are no pictures or maps.

To this reader, this book appears to contain an unseemly quantity of mistakes. For instance, everyone knows that Poland had in 1939 more than the 19 million people given it on p. 272. The National Liberal Party is thrice said to disappear, twice on p. 214, once p. 253, in the Wilhelmine period, yet it won a solid 12% of Reichstag seats in 1903, and increased this to 15% in 1907. Information on the social democrats is in error almost every time it is provided. (pp. 185, 212, 287).

RICHARD W. REICHARD

Washington College  
Chestertown, Maryland

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*The American Class Structure.* By Joseph A. Kohl (with an introduction by Kingsley Davis). New York: Rinehart and Company, 1957. Pp. 310. \$4.50.

Professor Kohl has written an excellent analysis of the class structure of the United States. Drawing upon the most important studies of the last thirty years, the author skillfully integrates the material into a framework involving the six variables of class—personal prestige, occupation, possessions, interaction, class consciousness and value orientations. In addition, there are penetrating chapters on ethnic and racial factors in class and on social mobility in the United States.



One satisfying characteristic of the book is that the author is not intent on maintaining a set position. The work of Warner, the Lynds, Centers, A. Davis and the Gardners, Hollingshead, Rogoff and many others is concisely presented and critically analyzed. It is far more than just a review of the work of others; worthwhile conclusions in the light of the evidence are presented at the end of each chapter. Brief, readable and reasonably complete, the book is of great value for one who desires to become acquainted in the area of class without reading all of the original studies.

Teachers are often accused of ignoring the realities of class in the schoolroom by catering to the needs of upper and upper-middle class students to the detriment of those individuals in the lower positions in the class pyramid. Whether this criticism is accepted or rejected, it is true that many educators are coming to the conclusion that school offerings must be constantly re-examined in terms of the diverse socio-economic backgrounds of the students and in the light of the eventual role assignments of the individual in the larger society. *The American Class Structure* should serve as basic reading for all of those concerned with the formation of realistic aims and objectives of education.

FRANK A. SCHOLFIELD

State University Teachers College  
Oswego, N. Y.

*Marriage Consulting: An Introduction to Marriage Counseling.* By Rex A. Skidmore, Hulda Van Steeter Garrett, and C. Jay Skidmore. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956. Pp. ix, 420. \$5.00.

"Marriage counseling is no job for amateurs" might well state the theme of this book. Yet one must conclude that in fact the field is rife with amateurs: quacks and charlatans (an estimated 25,000 bilk the public of \$375,000,000 a year); relatives and friends; doctors, teachers, lawyers, and other professional persons whose advice is incidental to their primary services; columnists and radio personalities; professional mar-

riage counselors whose field as yet is ill-defined, has no legal status, and struggles along with inadequate training and research opportunities. The authors strongly urge putting marriage counseling on a professional level, but in surveying the present situation, they show how far away the goal is.

"Marriage consulting" is used as a broad term covering professional "marriage counseling" and all the non-professional help offered by the well-meaning but untrained people in and out of other professions who are called upon for advice about marital problems. The book is offered as a text for introductory courses in marriage counseling, and as a source of aid for all the others. It surveys the services at present available; assesses the advantages and disadvantages of various categories of persons (for example, clergymen, teachers, relatives, friends, and others) as marriage counselors; outlines the philosophy of the field; enumerates and explains the techniques used; and ends with a statement of the requirements for making marriage counseling a profession; namely, increased training centers, certification of counselors, research and experimentation, professional organization, and public relations. Appendices include bibliography, pamphlet and film sources, and a directory of agencies providing counseling information.

"Where do people take their troubles?" is an increasingly recurring question in this age of unrest. The marriage counseling services, whatever their quality, and indeed almost any individual, be he professional in any human relations field or merely friend or neighbor, are going to be sought out by the emotionally distressed. One wonders about these social phenomena of the mass society; to what extent is there a need to "confess," to shift responsibility, to make a sophisticated bid for attention? Once it was "my operation," recently it has been "my analysis," is it soon to be "my premarital" reflecting fashion or an inner need for unburdening? Even the authors speak of engaged couples going for "their 'premarital'" and

of the great dangers of transference and countertransference, yet they look forward hopefully to the day when all will seek the advice of marriage counselors as a matter of course. Let us hope that by that time the professional status so strongly urged by the authors will have been achieved.

The book is a document dealing with the emergence of a profession. It will give readers a good idea of marriage counseling as it is and as it anticipates its future.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College  
Frederick, Maryland

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##### ARTICLES

- "The Lincoln Cult." By R. Gerald McMurtry. *Saturday Evening Post*, Feb. 12, 1957.  
 "Europe's Common Market; What It Is, How It Works." *Newsweek*, January 28, 1957.  
 "The Silent Revolution In Europe." By Jean Monnet. *The New York Times Magazine*, February 3, 1957.

##### PAMPHLETS

- Money and Politics*. By Alexander Heard. Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. Price 25 cents.  
*South Africa Today*. By Alan Paton. Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. Price 25 cents.  
 D. C. Heath and Company, Boston 16, Massachusetts, presents three new "Problem Pamphlets in American Civilization": *Wilson at Versailles, The Compromise of 1850, Evolution and Religion*.  
 Price \$1.25 each.  
*Miracle of Social Adjustment*. By Carl F. Hansen. Anti-Defamation League, 515 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York. Price 35 cents.

A detailed discussion on the desegregation in the Washington, D. C., schools.

##### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

- Judaism or Jewish Nationalism; The Alternative to Zionism*. By Elmer Berger. New York: Bookman Associates, 1957. Pp. 207. \$3.00.

*Insight, A Study of Human Understanding*. By Bernard J. F. Lonergan. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xx, 785. \$10.00.

*The Italian in America; A Social Study and History*. By Lawrence Frank Prisani. New York: Exposition Press, 1957. Pp. xix, 293. \$3.50.

*American Minorities*. Edited by Milton L. Barrou. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957. Pp. 1, 518. \$5.75.

*The Last Stand of the Chinese Conservatism; The Tung-Chih Restoration 1862-1874*. By Mary Clabaugh Wright. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1957. Pp. xii, 426. \$7.50.

*Spinoza: The Road to Inner Freedom*. Edited by Dagobert D. Runes. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. 209. \$3.00.

*American Economic History*. By George Soule and Vincent P. Carvaso. New York: The Dryden Press, 1957. Pp. xxx, 654. \$6.00.

*The Government and Administration of New Jersey*. American Commonwealth Series, W. Brooke Graves, Editor. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957. Pp. xxvii, 415. \$7.50.

*A Short History of the Far East*. By Kenneth Scott Latourette. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957. Pp. xix, 754. \$6.00. Third Edition.

*Our American Government*. By Stanley E. Dimond and Elmer F. Pflieger. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1957. Pp. xxx, 608. \$3.50.

*The American Story*. By Ruth Wood Gairan and William A. Hansen. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957. Pp. 1, 736. \$3.42.

*The World in the Twentieth Century*. By Geoffrey Bruun. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957. Pp. lii, 818. \$5.00. Third Edition.

*Human Relations in School Administrations*. By Daniel E. Griffiths. New York: Appleton Century Crofts, 1956. Pp. xii, 458. \$5.50.

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